

# Reading strategies in English Vg1

*What kind of reading habits do students have in English Vg1 and which reading strategies do they use on their own and in the classroom?*

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Tittel: Reading Strategies in English Vg1: What kind of reading habits do students have in English Vg1 and which reading strategies do they use on their own and in the classroom?

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# Abstract

The present thesis investigates the use of reading strategies in English Vg1, the final compulsory year of English in the Norwegian secondary school. It follows up the findings of a recent study that show that reading instruction at the Vg1 level in Norway is largely neglected. My study investigates this from the pupils' point of view.

The method applied is a quantitative survey made at seven schools in the Oslo area. I used a questionnaire with items about pupils' background, reading habits both at school and at home, their use of reading strategies on their own before reading, while reading and after reading, and lastly, reading strategies used in the classroom. The data collected was analyzed in the SPSS program (the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

The results show that although they are active readers, the pupils do not practise enough reading strategies to become better able to read to learn. It also became clear that pupils need to learn to use a more varied repertoire of reading strategies in order to meet the requirements of the English LK06 syllabus.

Though the findings can not be generalized to the rest of the pupils in English in Vg1 in Norway, I argue that they provide a useful picture of the current situation with regard to the use of reading strategies by English pupils at the Vg1 level.

This study should, nevertheless, be followed up by a large scale survey of a representative sample of pupils including better measures for reading proficiency and revised items for reading strategies depending on the type of text being read and the reading situation.

# Sammendrag

Denne masteroppgaven undersøker bruken av lesestrategier i Engelsk Vg1, siste obligatoriske år med Engelsk i videregående skole i Norge. Den følger opp en tidligere oppgave som viser at leseinstruksjoner på Vg1 nivå i Norge er svært forsømt. Min oppgave undersøker dette fra elevenes synsvinkel.

Metoden jeg bruker er en kvantitativ undersøkelse på syv skoler i Oslo-området. Jeg har brukt et spørreskjema med spørsmål om elevenes bakgrunn, lesevaner både på skolen og hjemme, deres bruk av lesestrategier for seg selv før de begynner å lese, mens de leser og etter at de har lest, og til sist, lesestrategier brukt i klasserommet. De innsamlete data ble analysert ved hjelp av SPSS (the Statistical Package for Social Sciences).

Resultatene viser at elevene er aktive lesere, men bruker ikke nok lesestrategier som kan hjelpe dem til å lese for å lære. Det ble også klart at elevene trenger å lære å bruke et større repertoar av lesestrategier for å møte kravene til læreplanen i Engelsk Vg1 LK06.

Selv om funnene ikke kan bli generalisert med hensyn til resten av elevene på Engelsk Vg1 i Norge, hevder jeg at de viser et nyttig bilde av situasjonen når det gjelder bruk av lesestrategier blant elever på Engelsk Vg 1.

Undersøkelsen burde imidlertid bli fulgt opp av en spørreundersøkelse i stor skala med et representativt utvalg av elever, inkludert et bedre måleredskap for leseferdighet og reviderte spørsmål om lesestrategier avhengig av type tekst og lesesituasjon.

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# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Background for the thesis

*"Les for å kunne leve"* Gustave Flaubert (as cited in Alberto Manguel, 1996, p. 1)

*"Å lese er vår sentrale funksjon – nesten like som å puste"* (Alberto Manguel, 1996, p. 7)

The first personal experience that awakened my interest in this subject is my own two children who began reading at different ages. The elder started reading Spanish at the age of three in nursery school in Spain while the younger began reading in Norway, at the age of six. My second child's late start worried me. It took him several months before he could combine sounds and words and understand their meaning. His brother learned to read Norwegian faster and could master long texts by the same age. I asked my son's first teacher in Spain what might be the reason for the differences in reading development. She thought that reading in Spanish was quicker because he used and practised reading strategies in the classroom. She felt that the more pupils read texts and practise their strategies, the faster they read and understand what they read. Does her answer confirm the idea that in order to turn strategies into skills it is important to be exposed to texts often? Although this personal experience is based on very little data, it made me think about the issue.

The next episode that contributed to this thesis was when I was attending a combined English course at a college in England to refresh my command of oral and written English. In this encounter I thought about the idea of asking students about their use of reading strategies. One of the assignments we were given was an oral presentation about a topic we liked. Since I had started writing my thesis at that time, I thought this might be a good opportunity to find out what reading strategies my German classmates used when learning English. I have to point out that the group consisted of skilled readers in English as their L2. All of them were students from German universities where they were third- or fourth-year students in different areas such as medicine, biology, IT, sociology and teaching. One part of my presentation was to let them discuss reading strategies in pairs. Then I gave them a text that I had found in one of the textbooks used in Norway in Vg1. Before starting their reading they were asked to pay attention to which reading strategies they used. To my surprise, I found that these students

consciously used a lot of strategies. They did not use professional jargon when referring their strategies, but when I gave them a summary of reading strategies presented in Astrid Roe's book *Leserdidaktikk* (2008), we discovered that they had used many of them. In addition, one of the students knew a lot about the topic in the text, in this case a film review. She told us that her main aim when she was reading was to check if the information given in the film review was correct and how the author presented it. She was very critical towards the content of the text because she had seen the movie as well.

The third encounter with the topic was when I read a previous Master's thesis about *Reading in English as L2 in the First year of Upper Secondary School*, Faye-Schjøll (2009). It turned out that hardly any of the 12 teachers she interviewed for her thesis knew what the term *reading strategies* meant, or how to teach them in practice. This surprised me and gave me the inspiration to continue to do more research in this field.

These three experiences, described above, raised my interest in the subject and made me aware of how important this topic is for me as an English teacher now and in the future. Thus, I decided to choose it as the topic of my thesis but this time the target group had to be the students. They might have something to tell me that could cast more light on the issue and help me and other English teachers to organize our future planning of reading instructions.

I intended to find out what pupils know about themselves as readers by asking them about their reading habits at home and at school. The goal was to find out the use of reading strategies on their own and with the teacher in the classroom. Therefore, the aim of this thesis is to add to the research on reading strategies in the teaching of English in upper secondary schools in Norway. Research so far on reading in L1 Norwegian as well as L2 reading English indicates that Norwegian pupils lack good reading strategies and skills. As a high school English teacher, I am interested in how students at this level progress, and especially at the level Vg1 since it is the last compulsory year for the subject of English. I believe that pupils deserve to be made aware of good reading strategies before they are left on their own as future readers in English. Nevertheless, since key words such as reading, strategy and skill remain unclear for the majority of the teachers in Faye-Schjøll (2009), and probably for some pupils, it may be important to focus on these definitions already in my introduction chapter.

## 1.2 Working definitions of reading, reading strategies

Many people may define the act of reading in different ways, but we can agree that you need a written or printed text in order to perform this task. If we look up the word *reading* in a dictionary we will find different entries for the verb to read. As Bernhardt ( Bernhardt, 1991b, as cited in Urquhart & Weir, 1998), Urquhart & Weir select dictionary definitions to interpret the term. There are thirteen entries about reading in *The Concise Oxford Dictionary*. Urquhart & Weir selects the first three.

1. Interpret mentally; declare interpretation or coming development of (*read dream, riddle, omen, men's hearts or thoughts or faces*;
2. (To be able to) convert into the intended words or meaning written or printed or other symbols or things expressed by such symbols....; *reads or can read, hieroglyphics, shorthand, Braille, Morse, music...*;
3. Reproduce mentally or ... vocally, while following their symbols, with eyes or fingers, the words of (author, book, letter, etc.); *read the letter over...*(p. 13).

However, Urquhart & Weir (1998, p.14) restrict the process of reading to “language messages in written or printed forms”. They may include symbols, mathematical figures, or maps.

The next definition given by Hudson (2007) presents what reading is not. This may help us sort things out:

Reading is not: 1) the reinforcement of oral skills; 2) grammatical or discourse analysis; 3) the acquisition of new vocabulary; 4) translation practice; 5) answering comprehension questions; or 6) practicing to improve reading ability. Certainly, these may aid in learning to read, but they are not reading. (pp. 28-9)

Hudson (2007, p. 10) gives a definition of reading in which the reader constructs meaning using strategies and skills. He states that “It involves the interaction of an array of processes and knowledge.” For him the reader must know how to process the particular text type in order for it to be meaningful at all. Therefore, it is important to define reading strategies.

However, before I give a definition of reading strategies it is necessary to explain what skills and strategies are. There is general consensus among researchers that reading strategies

may be seen as a “problem solving process” and that, strategies are solutions or responses to the reader’s problems. Urquhart & Weir (1998, pp. 96-98) claim that a response is a conscious act and that strategies involve a conscious effort made by the reader to solve his reading problems. In comparison, a skill is an unconscious act which is applied automatically when it is needed. According to Paris, Wasik and Turner (1991, p. 611; as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 221) skills are “processing techniques that have become automatic”.

In the next sections of this introductory chapter I will present previous studies done in reading both in Norwegian as L1 and English as L2 in Norway. Before I do it, I will introduce some abbreviations I have used in this thesis.

### **1.2.1 Abbreviations used in this thesis**

I include a list of abbreviations and their meanings in this section which I will use in this thesis.

1. EFL: English as a foreign language
2. L1: A person’s first language
3. L2: A person’s second languages, for this thesis English
4. LK06: The Norwegian English Syllabus in the Knowledge Promotion Curriculum
5. NSD: Norwegian Social Science Data Services
6. OECD: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
7. PISA: Programme for International Student Assessment
8. SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

I would like to clarify that the term *pupil* in this thesis is used for learners in upper secondary school while the term *student* refers to learners at university or college.

## **1.3 Reading in Norwegian (L1)**

The PISA 2006 report (Kjærnsli, Lie, Olsen, Roe, 2007) found low scores in reading literacy among 15-year-old Norwegian pupils. This comparative survey of the educational system in



different countries has been conducted every three years since 2000 and three main domains in literacy are tested each time: mathematics, natural sciences and reading. The test focuses on the knowledge and skills which people need to use in their future. The test on reading literacy tasks is divided in three categories. The first category is called *retrieving information* and deals with tasks which ask the student to find specific information. In the second category, *interpreting texts*, pupils must show their ability to understand and interpret the text. The third category, *reflecting on and evaluating the content of a text*, includes tasks that require that pupils use their background knowledge and their own ideas. In addition, evaluation of the text structure such as graphics, genre, structure, style and language are included in this category. The survey is thus concerned with testing a great variety of skills.

As PISA 2006 was the third time that this survey was done, it is surprising to see that Norwegian pupils scored below the OECD countries that participated and did the poorest of the Nordic countries. In fact, only Iceland had similar results. However, Norwegians may console themselves by the fact that there has been a decline in reading comprehension in all of the participating OECD countries.

The report did not offer a conclusive explanation for the poor reading performance of Norwegian pupils, but suggested a number of negative factors that might be at work. These factors were related to social and cultural issues as well as pupils' background, schools and teaching. Another factor which might explain the poor results was the fact pupils who were tested in PISA 2006 followed the old curriculum L97, and not the new curriculum LK06. It will be interesting to see the results of PISA 2009 with pupils who have followed the new curriculum.

PISA 2006 highlighted that the biggest problem for Norwegian pupils was the lack of good reading strategies. Research has shown that little instruction is given in Norway after the "first reading instruction" in lower secondary school (Rasmussen, 2003; Mortensen-Buna, 2004, as cited in Kjærnsli, Lie, Olsen, Roe, 2007, p. 28) and that "there is little reading instruction in lower secondary school" (Lie et al., 2007; as cited in Kjærnsli, Lie, Olsen, Roe, 2006, p. 28).

While it is essential to continue to focus on reading in the classroom, we need to help students become more aware of how to read. It is not a question of how many books the students read but how they read. The following answer given by Roe (2007, as cited in

Kjærnsli, Lie, Olsen, Roe, 2007, p. 29) shows what may happen when a pupil reads: “I might read, and then I am thinking of something else, that I have not understood. (...) Then I close my book and think that I have read”.

PISA 2006 showed the problems with reading literacy in the L1 among Norwegian pupils and invited researchers, politicians and teachers to further discussion on the issue. However, assuming that reading skills may be transferred from the L1 to the L2 (Bernhardt, 2005), I think that one of the reasons why Norwegian pupils have difficulties in L2 reading is that they have not developed adequate reading skills in the L1. Thus, my view is that pupils need qualified teachers in reading instruction placing more emphasis on strategies and skills in the classroom both in Norwegian and in English.

However, in Norway the results of PISA 2006 have inspired further studies in order to find out a clearer picture of the issue. How are reading strategies in English used at elementary school, at high school and at university? Research has been made in these groups and it is important to present their results in the next sections in this chapter.

## **1.4 Reading strategies in Norwegian**

Anmarkrud's doctoral thesis (2009, my own translation) provided us with further evidence that there was insufficient use of reading strategies and reading instruction as well as a lack of reading motivation in secondary school in Norway. In his study there were four 9<sup>th</sup> grade teacher informants from four different secondary schools in Norway. Although the number of teachers was very limited and Anmarkrud admitted that this might be one of the negative sides of his study, his findings are very illustrative for my study. It showed that all the informants had little knowledge of understanding of what reading strategies were and how to apply them in the classroom. Anmarkrud found it surprising that these teachers did not seem to be aware of or influenced by the research that has been done in the last thirty years. On the contrary, they seemed only to rely on personal experience, reading texts on the subjects they teach and exchanging ideas with other colleagues (Jensen et al., 2008; as cited in Anmarkrud, 2009, p. 235; my own translation).

In spite of the fact that the teachers participating in this study did not have an extensive knowledge of reading strategies, Anmarkrud (2009) provided the reader with relevant definitions of the term and examples of strategies that he tested afterwards in his

research. The starting point in defining reading strategies is the term itself *strategy* seen within a pedagogical and psychological frame. He referred to Pressley & Hilden (2006, as cited in Anmarkrud, 2009, p. 42) who defined that strategies are cognitive operations that are natural to use in order to perform tasks. They can be used in sequences or independently and always achieve cognitive purposes such as memorizing and comprehending. Furthermore, these cognitive operations are conscious and controllable activities. In addition to this group of strategies, Anmarkrud pointed out that there is a group of strategies that need to be taken into account in the cognitive process and these are metacognitive strategies. They do not deal with reading but how the reader has control over her or his reading process. By using these strategies readers can monitor their reading and find more about how they understand the text, improve their understanding of the text and use different strategies to help them in the reading process (Bråten & Olaussen, 1999; Pintrich, 2000; Samuelsen, 2002; as cited in Anmarkrud, 2009, p. 47-8; my own translation). Having these definitions in mind, it is important to say that Anmarkrud focused on the use of strategies in a learning perspective and again within the pedagogical and psychological view. Consequently, he based his study about reading strategies on Weinstein and Mayers learning strategy taxonomy (1986, as cited in Anmarkrud, 2009, p. 49). According to this taxonomy, learning strategies are divided into four categories: *memorizing, reconstructing, organizing and monitoring strategies*.

A short presentation of these strategies can give us a better understanding of Anmarkrud's results. The first category, *memorizing strategies*, refers to strategies that help to remember the content of the text. (Bråten, 2007b; Bråten & Samuelstuen, 2004; as cited in Anmarkrud, 2009, p. 49, my own translation). Examples of these memorizing strategies can be underlying words and sentences, learning both vocabulary and sentences by memory, writing sentences and parts of the text or rereading parts of the text. The next group, *reconstructing strategies*, is defined as strategies used to find knowledge about the topic in the readers' mind and strategies used in order to integrate the new knowledge in the readers' previous knowledge and adjust it (Bråten, 2007b; Weinstein et al., 2006; Weinstein et al., 2000; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986; as cited in Anmarkrud, 2009, p. 50). Examples of this category can be relating ideas to the topic of the text or other visual information accompanying the text, expectations before and after reading the text and making use of this knowledge in other context (Bråten, 2007a, 2007b; as cited in Anmarkrud, 2009, p. 50). The third category, *organizing strategies*, is used to create coherence within the different parts of the text so as to get a better understanding of all the parts of the text (Bråten, 2007b;

Samuelstuen, 2002; Weinstein et al., 2006; as cited in Anmarkrud, 2009, p. 50). Examples of these are mind-maps and short summaries of the content of the text. He argued that this category was not included in PISA 2006. Lastly, the fourth category, *monitoring strategies*, is concerned with how the reader controls and evaluates his process of reading (Weinstein and Mayers, 1986; as cited in Anmarkrud, 2009, p. 51). The only example given is that the reader asks himself questions about the text in order to find out if the text is being understood, and if the understanding of the text is deficient this strategy could be the starting point to put more effort and change in use of strategies (Bråten, 2007b; as cited in Anmarkrud, 2009, p. 51).

As mentioned at the beginning of this section, teachers involved in this study used very little time in their classes to teach learning strategies. Indeed, 80% of the time was not used to teach strategies at all. The group of strategies that were mostly used in the classroom was *reconstruction strategies* with a 15% of use of time. The other categories of strategies such as *memorizing and organizing and monitoring* were below 3% (Anmarkrud, 2009, p. 167). The only explanation of so little use of reading strategies that Anmarkrud gives is the lack of a proper system in planning how to use them (Anmarkrud, 2009, p. 238).

The next section will present recent research in reading in English at upper secondary school and university level.

## **1.5 Reading in English in Upper Secondary Schools and the University of Oslo**

The studies that I present in this section question the quality of the Norwegian EFL instruction of reading proficiency. It seems that reading in English has been seriously neglected at upper secondary school and the main reason is too little emphasis on teaching Norwegian pupils how to read to learn, which involves instruction in reading and in learning strategies. The first study is concerned with how English teachers work with reading in English at state high school at the level Vg1; while the other studies deal with students in higher education.

According to a recent master's thesis by Faye-Schjøll (2009) at the University of Oslo, upper secondary school teachers of English in Norway lack knowledge of reading strategies in English and therefore fail to teach these. Her conclusion is based on a qualitative study in which the informants are twelve formally qualified teachers at different schools. It turns out

that almost none of them know what the term reading strategies means, or how to apply them in practice.

One of the reasons for not teaching specific reading strategies is that they believed that pupils should have reached an appropriate level of reading in English at this age. Furthermore, they thought that it was in the subject of Norwegian that pupils should continue practising and developing skills and strategies. Two of the informants taught reading strategies in separate lessons but they admit that that did not lead to increased efficiency in their pupils' reading. In fact, the study showed that only one informant worked systematically with reading strategies in his teaching.

Another issue dealt with in this study is the small amount of reading that took place in the classrooms of the teachers of English involved. They used mostly textbooks and in some cases the pupils read a novel. The twelve informants admitted not having enough time to do extra reading. Only one informant used more varied texts and a number of texts. If this is the situation of 16 year-old pupils in this study, it may be interesting to know about the reading skills and strategies among pupils applying for universities in English-speaking countries and students at the University of Oslo who have to be prepared to read books in English in their reading lists.

In the first study, Hellekjær (2008) tested academic reading proficiency in English of students in their last year of upper secondary school. Although the group consisted of 217 pupils qualified for higher education, two thirds of them did not achieve the necessary scores when they were tested in the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). It has to be mentioned that without passing this test, students cannot enter British and Australian universities. Hellekjær believed there were two main reasons that caused the low results: the lack of strategies in adjusting the reading purpose and in tackling unknown words.

In the second study, Hellekjær (2009) showed that academic reading proficiency in English is also a problem among students at the University of Oslo. The project involved 578 students from three faculties, attending courses at the university and having parts of their reading lists in English. The results of this study showed that 30% of the respondents had serious difficulties in reading English and 44% found reading in English more difficult than reading in their mother tongue. The main problems of the students were the handling of unfamiliar vocabulary and their slow reading speed. Although Norwegian students are quite

good in English compared to other European countries (Bonnet, 2004; as cited by Hellekjær, 2009, p. 198) and continuously exposed to English in the Media, and some even consider English their second language (Graddol & Meinhof, 1999; as cited in Hellekjær, 2009, p. 198) they are not good readers in English. This is quite surprising when compared with the fluency of Norwegians in everyday English.

These studies have made me think more about reading strategies in English and consider the idea of involving pupils in my research. What do pupils know about reading strategies and how do they use them? I think that before I present data about pupils' answers it is relevant to give an overview about reading strategies in Faye-Schjøll's study (2009) in the next section.

## **1.6 Reading strategies in English in Vg1**

Reading strategies in Faye-Schjøll (2009) were considered important by all her informants but they found it difficult to explain why and how to apply them in their classes. The majority did not work with reading strategies and the few who did so, worked on them separately and occasionally. None of them gave any example of what reading strategies are. It was surprising to find only one informant that could define the term and gave some few examples. His definition of reading strategies was "...everything we do while we read that enables us to understand and remember the information given in the text" (Faye-Schjøll, 2009, p. 107). He also named examples of reading strategies such as skimming, scanning and reading for meaning, and admitted the choice of the best way of reading rests on the purpose for reading. Faye-Schjøll added that all the informants except one had neither conscious goal nor plan behind reading or assessment in their pupils' reading. In her opinion the reason for working little or nothing on reading strategies was due to lack of knowledge with regards to what reading strategies are, how to teach them and why they are important. For this reason Faye-Schjøll suggested that teachers might need more service training on how to teach reading and why reading is important.

## **1.7 The research statement**

The research statement is: "What are the reading strategies that English Vg1 students use?" that I have divided into four main sub-questions:

1. What kind of reading habits do Vg1 pupils of English have at home and at school?
2. Which reading strategies do Vg1 pupils of English use on their own before reading, while reading and after reading?
3. Which reading strategies do Vg1 pupils of English use in the classroom with the teacher?
4. How often do Vg1 pupils of English use these reading strategies?

The target group of my research will be the first year of high school in Norway, Vg 1, which is the last year of English as a compulsory subject. Since pupils in Vg1 are young, I have prepared a questionnaire that is easy to understand and takes little time. There are four main parts in my questionnaire. First, I ask the pupils about their general background. Second, I ask pupils about their reading habits both at school and at home. Third, I ask them to mark reading strategies they use on their own in pre-reading, while-reading and after- reading. Finally, I ask the pupils to indicate how they read in the classroom with their teacher.

## **1.8 Overview of the thesis**

In the following chapter, chapter 2, I will present relevant theory on how reading in the L1 and the L2 work, and what reading strategies are and which kind of strategies can be used during the reading process.

In chapter 3 I will concentrate on the LK06 syllabus in English Vg1. Then I will analyse how syllabuses impact on teaching and I will continue with what the English LK06 syllabus says about reading as a basic skill. Finally I will sum up what it requires with regard to reading and reading strategies.

Chapter 4 is the method chapter in which I will present the reasons why I use a survey and what kind of survey it is and how I got the samples. I will describe how I conceived the idea of the self-completion, anonymous questionnaire as a little time-consuming strategy for putting questions to the pupils.

In the next chapter, chapter 5, I will present the results of my survey and my analysis of the data using SPSS (the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

Finally, I will end my research in two chapters. Chapter 6 will be the discussion chapter in which I will draw conclusions and discuss how reading strategies can be more integrated in the classroom to help pupils to be skilled readers in the future. Last but not least, chapter 7 will give suggestions for further research in the field.



## **2 State of the art chapter: Reading and reading strategies**

### **2.1 Overview of the chapter**

In this chapter I will present what the process of reading in L1 and L2 is, based on the literature I have used. Section one deals with reading in L1 and its lower-and higher-level processes as well as definitions of their respective components such as word recognition, syntactic parsing and semantic encoding. I will mention the types of memory involved in the reading process in L1 and I will give a brief description of how they work in the reader's mind. Section three presents reading in L2 and it highlights differences between reading in Norwegian L1 and English L2 for Norwegian pupils. Then in section four I will focus on reading to learn in English L2 and distinguish between the concepts strategy and skill before I present types of strategies that are of help to the Norwegian L2 English reader. I will present an overview of different reading strategies in the process of reading in English L2 as well as provide definitions of strategies that can assist the Norwegian pupils in their English L2 reading. The last section is concerned with transferability knowledge sources from L1 to L2 and it ends up with current research towards a model of L2 reading.

### **2.2 Reading in the L1**

Reading is probably the most natural activity in the world, in the sense that it helps us understand the circumstances around us. In Smith's (2004) definition, the word "reading" in its original meaning is interpretation.

We can read the weather, the state of the tides, peoples feelings and intentions, stock market trends, animal tracks, maps, signals, signs, symbols, hands, tea leaves, the law, music, mathematics, minds, body language, between the lines, and faces. "Reading", when employed to refer to interpretation of a piece of writing, is just a special use of the term. (p. 2).

However, the questions I want to answer in this section are what reading of “a piece of writing” in L1 is, and which processes are involved in reading in L1.

Reading can be described as an interactive process that allows the reader to construct meaning by using information obtained from various knowledge structures. These knowledge structures include knowledge of letters, knowledge of letter-sound relationships, knowledge of words, knowledge of syntax (grammar), and schematic knowledge (chunks of knowledge you possess). Comprehension occurs through an interaction between information provided from the reader’s prior knowledge and information gleaned from the text. (Rumelhart, 1977, as cited in Ryder & Graves, 2003, p.18).

In the same way, Pearson and Tierney (1984; as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 49) presented a reading model “which involves a negotiation of meaning between the reader and the author, both of whom create meaning through the medium of text”. It is the reader that constructs the meaning by reading the text. That implies a distinction between the written text and the text created by the reading process. Ryder & Graves (2003) stated that one of the most important construct theories influencing our understanding of reading has been schemata. These are described by Rumelhart (1980, cited in Ryder & Graves, 2003, p.19) as “chunks of knowledge that exist in our head”. According to Rumelhart all our knowledge is packed into units that we activate when we try to interpret the information we receive. These schematic units can be knowledge of different things such as objects, situations, events or actions. Rumelhart illustrated this by with giving different interpretations of terms. Words like blue, practical joke, junk food, peace, beauty and respect have a schema that can have different interpretations in the reader’s mind. In other words, the term schemata, which originally comes from Cognitive Psychology (Roe, 2008, p. 32, my own translation), consists of previous knowledge experiences stored in the reader’s brain’s long-term memory. An interesting characteristic of schemata is that the variables or characteristics of a particular schema can be given different values for different individual’s interpretation. It can be refined, reshaped while the reader acquires more information. In other words, a child’s schema for beach differs from an adult’s (Ryder & Graves, 2003, pp. 19-20). This shows that these cognitive schemata are not static but flexible and nevertheless affected by cultural background (Anderson and Pearson, 1984, Iran Nejad, 1987, Kintsh, 1998; as cited in Roe, 2008, p. 33). To illustrate this interaction between the reader and the text I will use the following citation that I found in a blog:

Once you reach reading fluency, your mind no longer sees individual words; instead it makes pictures of what is happening in the story. Almost like a movie theatre in your head. An author is a guide, steering the developments, but you are the one who adds all the nuance and emotion.

For example, if the author writes, “The young girl, dressed in red, marched up the stairs.” Your mind has thousands of variations to fill in. Is she 2 or 15? Outside or in? Is the dress fancy or tattered? It’s an amazing process because you don’t stop to think it out. It’s an automatic response based on previous experiences and emotions. And that was just a simple sentence; imagine how deeply you go in a novel full of complex characters and situations. (Reno, 2009).

The reading process is explained as follows:

The premise of Constructive Reading Theory is that you are working in concert with the author to make this world seem real to you. They put together the framework and lead you through, but it is your job to fill the world with what is important to you. And the world you create will be completely unique, no matter how good an author is at details, they do not have your experiences. No one will have the exact same emotional responses to a story. (Reno, 2009).

The quotation above can also be associated with the reader response theory which has its origin in the hermeneutic tradition. Wolfgang Iser (1978, as cited in Roe, 2008, p. 31. my own translation), one of the most respected scholars in the “reader response” school of literary criticism, stated in his theory that a text presents empty spaces which the reader has to fill in. When this happens, then the reader communicates with the text. However, according to Iser, it is not only the reader’s duty to fill in the empty spaces, but also to accept the text-structure we are reading. If text-structure is not understood, the reader will not be able to communicate with the text. Further researchers in this school of literary criticism such as Stanley Fish (1980, as cited in Roe, 2008, 32 my own translation), stated that a text can have different interpretations depending on the reader. What really counts is not what the text says, but what the text does with the reader’s mind after he or she has interpreted it.

Considering that reading is an interaction between the text and the reader, it is important to describe how the reading process works and what kinds of processes are involved. The process of reading combines different processes no matter what the type of text it is and what the purpose of reading it is. Before I present the different processes involved, I

will briefly present a short description of what a good reader does. Grabe (2009, pp. 14-15) focused on this and explained the reading processes. In short, a skilled reader reads rapidly and efficiently because he does not only recognize the meaning of words and grammatical structures to understand the text, but is also able to find ways to solve meanings of unknown words and new grammatical patterns. In this process he uses his previous knowledge in a flexible way, either word-recognition, grammatical patterns or content. Besides, he has a critical evaluation of the information he receives and he is always conscious of the purpose of his reading. All in all, he constantly interacts with the text. In the next section, I will outline the different processes involved in reading that occur at different levels in the readers' mind. There are lower-level and higher-level processes that assist the reader in the process of reading.

### **2.2.1 Lower-level processes and higher-level processes in the L1 reading**

Grabe (2009) divided the process of reading in two categories: *lower-level processes and higher-level processes*. The former includes word recognition, syntactic parsing and semantic proposition encoding; while the latter covers text model information, what the text is about and the situation-model, i.e. the way the text is interpreted. Describing these processes is essential for a better understanding of what fluent reading implies and how to apply instructions in the classroom.

#### **Lower-level processes in L1 reading**

Lower-level processes consist of a group of skills that have the potential to become automatized as requirement for fluent reading. They are either simple or undemanding. (Anderson, 2000a; Hulstijn, 2001; Koda, 2005; Stanovich, 1990, 2000; as cited in Grabe, 2009, p.21). The place where the automaticity occurs is in the working memory of the reader (Grabe, 2009, p. 22). Below I will explain briefly what these components are and how they work.

#### **What is word recognition?**

Recognizing words is not the equivalent of reading comprehension (Grabe, 2009, p. 23) but still a very important component in fluent reading for most researchers. This is a rapid and

automatic process in which the reader starts connecting the graphic form, that is to say the letter shape of the word with its phonological features, the pronunciation required, its semantic meaning and its syntactic function (Perfetti & Hart, 2001, Perfetti, 2007, as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 23). Furthermore, a fluent reader can read a text at an average speed of 250-300 words per minute. That means that the reader must quickly connect quickly graphic form and phonological information with semantic and syntactic information. Therefore, it is an advantage for the reader to have considerable knowledge about affixes to perform better in word recognition. These morphological markers serve the reader to prompt syntactic information about the word in order to integrate it in the syntactic structure of the sentence. Fluent readers as opposed to low-level readers possess a large lexicon and they usually find few unknown words; therefore the context effect is relatively small. In contrast, if unknown words appear, the context plays an important role for the reader (cf. Perfetti, 1994, 1999; Perfetti & Hart, 2001; Stanovich, 2000, as cited in Grabe, 2009, p.23).

### **What is syntactic parsing?**

Reading involves not only word recognition but also recognizing grammatical information such as determiners, word ordering, subordinate clauses, tense, modality, and pronominal forms (Grabe, 2005; as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 30). The syntactic information that the sentence provides the reader with is essential in giving meaning to the sentence. Two examples from Grabe (2009, p.29) can illustrate how grammatical information affects the readers' mind. The first sentence says more than sentence 2:

1. *The man who broke the antique vase will be washing dishes all night.*
2. *Broke antique washing night the all the be man will vase dishes who.*

Sentence number 2 has a lot of words that the reader recognizes but it makes no sense because they do not follow the syntactic order they should to be understood. This illustrates how important grammar becomes as an important component in the reader's knowledge to work out the meaning of sentences. However, sentences do not appear isolated; they are usually part of bigger units called semantic propositions (Perfetti & Britt, 1995, as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 31). In other words, a text is formed with several sentences arranged in paragraphs that the reader needs to give further meaning to. Decoding information of these units is the next step in the process of reading that I explain in my next question.

## **What is semantic proposition encoding?**

Semantic proposition encoding refers to the information obtained from word recognition and syntactic parsing building comprehension (Perfetti & Britt, 1995, as cited in Grabe, 2009, p.31).

These encodings are called meaning units and are almost equivalent to phrase and clause units (Fender, 2001; Kintsh, 1998; Lewis, 2000; Pichering & Traxler, 2000; as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 31). These semantic propositions like small packets of information are tied together by the reader in order to comprehend the text. They get activated temporarily in the reader's working memory – a temporary memory- and will be stored later on in our long-term memory – a long lasting memory. It appears that the working memory plays a vital role both in reading and has to be contrasted with the long-term memory in order to understand how both interact in the reading process (Grabe, 2009, p.32). Thus, it is important to describe how it functions before I give further information about the reading process.

## **What is working memory?**

The concept of working memory has been a part of Cognitive Psychology since the 60s and the term is well established after Baddeley and Hitch's definition in 1974 (as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 33). There are two kinds of memory: working memory and long-term memory. Both of them are necessary in learning but the working memory plays the most important role in the process of reading. The working memory is the place where the reader maintains information actively for one or two seconds; processing phonological, orthographic and morphological information through links that activate part of the long-term memory where we keep permanent knowledge. Through its executive control the working memory excludes unnecessary information without the reader's awareness (Baddeley, 2006; Friedman & Miyake, 2004; Long, Johns, & Morris, 2006; as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 35). The working memory may be activated by mental rehearsal, in other words this memory can help readers activate their previous knowledge when readers are exposed to extensive reading. When readers use their working memory all the lower level processes mentioned are also involved. Last but not least important is long-term memory, which has a storage function. In general terms, this long-term memory stores all our experiences and our efforts to understand our

environment (Grabe, 2009, p. 32). When it comes to process of reading, the long-term memory works as the place where all the lower-level processes such as word recognition, syntactic parsing and semantic encoding are saved and highlighted through the use of the working memory. Nevertheless, how reading abilities differ from reader to reader has its main source in the working memory (Baddeley, 2006, 2007; Cain, 2006; Friedman & Miyake, 2004; Perfetti, Landi & Oakhill, 2005; as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 35).

To sum up, lower-level processes, also called bottom-up approaches, have in common that the reader always systematically follows the same pattern to give meaning to the sentences. To put it simpler, the reader is exposed with recognition of letters, then goes through recognition of words and ends up with recognition of sentences (Gough, 1972; as cited in Urquhart & Weir, 1998, p. 40). “Basically, a reader constructs meaning from letters, words, phrases, clauses, and sentences by processing the text into phonemic units that represent lexical meaning, and then builds meaning in a linear manner” (Hudson, 2007, p.33).

The next section focuses on higher-level processes and how they work in the reader’s mind.

### **Higher-level processes in L1 reading**

Higher-level processes contribute to comprehension, but are not consistently described in comprehension literature. There is, however, one characteristic worth mentioning and it is that they can be carried out automatically if no difficulty appears. In short, these higher-level processes deal with texts and more specifically with two types of texts, namely the text model and the situation model, and with a set of reading skills and other resources controlled by the working memory (Grabe, 2009, p. 39). To start with, the text model is the text that appears in the reader’s mind while reading; whereas the situation model text is the text that the reader creates after reading it. In cognitive psychology the situation model is also called the mental model. In the text model the reader mainly uses the low-level processes; recognition of words, grammar and semantic propositions. In the situation model, however, the reader works with other reading skills and other components such as goals associated with motivation and attitude, inferences, background knowledge and comprehension monitoring. It is the mental model which determines what is learned and retained in the long term memory. Although the goal might be the same for two readers who read a text, the situation text varies from reader to reader due to differences between previous knowledge in the components I mentioned above.

Consequently, a reader with little knowledge about a specific topic will develop a kind of summary of the text model without being too critical of the text. In comparison a skilled reader not only relies on more previous knowledge but he makes more use of other cognitive components than the less able reader in order to monitor his reading. The skilled reader will use metacognitive and linguistic awareness and will employ attentional and linguistic resources to determine whether or not he understands the text (Grabe, 2009, pp. 40-55).

Once more, there are similarities between *higher-level processes* and *top-down approaches* since in both the reader brings hypotheses to the text that will be confirmed or denied after reading the text (Goodman, 1967; as cited in Urquhart & Weir, 1998, p. 42). Top-down approaches assume that the reader approaches a text with conceptualizations above the textual level already in operation and then works down to the text itself. “The reader continually makes continually changing hypotheses about the incoming information. This reader applies background knowledge, both form and content, to the text in order to create meaning that is personal and contextually sensible” (Smith, 1971, 1983, 1994; as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 34).

However, as research has shown lately there is a more unified opinion concerning the different approaches or processes when reading is considered. It is not either one or the other but a combination of them. Today, researchers claim that interactive approaches in reading show that different cognitive processes are involved in the process of reading and that these do not occur as a regular sequence. One of these models, the interactive-compensatory presented by Stanovich (1980, as cited in Urquhart & Weir, 1998, pp. 39, 44-45), defended the fact that the reader can compensate weaknesses in one area of knowledge or skill by using another skill. He exemplified this by saying that weakness in orthography might be rescued by strength in syntax. The Stanovich model has strongly influenced Bernhardt’s compensatory model of second language reading (Bernhardt, 2005). In my next section, reading in a foreign language, I will explain more about this reading model after analyzing how different reading components work in reading in L2 English.

## **2.3 Reading in the L2**

Reading in a foreign language implies an L1 language background that gives the reader an idea of what is going to be expected of him. Furthermore, the reader will have previous



experience of what reading in the L1 involves. There are also common aspects in the process of reading that affect all readers. As mentioned in my previous section, Grabe (2009, p. 123) pointed out some universal aspects that a reader goes through in any language: orthographical, phonological and morphological decoding, giving meaning to the text by using syntactic information, having goals while reading starts and using both long-term memory and working memory in order to interpret the text. How do these processes work in English as L2? In the next section I will outline these processes and find out which are the main differences between reading in L1 and English L2.

### **2.3.1 Differences between reading in the L1 and in English as an L2**

As we all know, reading in L2 requires greater effort than reading in L1. The reader needs to be able to decode orthographic, phonological and morphological information as well as to have a reading purpose, text structure knowledge and to use reading strategies and metacognitive strategies in his attempt to understand the text and to do so in a language he or she might not be proficient in. In the following subsections, I will present how this works between Norwegian L1 and English L2.

#### **Orthographic, phonological, morphological and semantic decoding**

To start with, an L2 reader in English needs previous knowledge about the orthography, phonology and morphology of English in order to start the reading process. English has irregular orthography; words are not written phonetically, but have many different spelling patterns that make reading in English more complicated than in Norwegian, which has a phonetic orthography. Therefore, pupils need to grasp and memorize complex letter-sound relations as soon as possible. A lot of pronunciation exercises will help them acquire the necessary skills at a beginner's level. For example, I do not think that Norwegian pupils in Vg1 have great problems since they are continually exposed to every-day English in the media and also have also studied English since first grade at school.

In terms of morphology, both Norwegian and English share some similarities. There are many derivational prefixes and suffixes, but inflectional morphology is very simple, making English noun case and verb conjugation forms fairly easy to learn and use (Grabe, 2009, p. 113). In contrast with Norwegian, morphological changes in English sometimes may lead to letter-to-sound changes within words e.g. "electric to electricity, nation to national"

but do not disturb the spelling of English words. This preference in English to preserve morphology over phonology is a major reason why it is a deep orthography (Grabe, 2009, p. 116).

The next step in the process of reading in L2 is to decode meanings of words. L1 and L2 readers begin reading from different starting points. The main difference between an L1 and an L2 reader is that the L1 reader has used this language orally before he starts reading. Moreover, the L1 reader has an extensive vocabulary, several thousands of words, before he or she starts reading (Grabe, 2009, p. 131). If we compare who our L2 readers in English with L1 readers in English are, it is obvious that our L2 pupils already know a large number of words when they take the last compulsory year of English. Although the L2 pupils have needed many years to develop their vocabulary, they lack vocabulary for specific themes. This may seem to be a never-ending task but the L2 reader can become a good reader without knowing every word in the text. Lack of specific vocabulary does not prevent a pupil from becoming a skilled reader. As a matter of fact, “good readers do not settle for literal meanings but rather interpret what they have read, sometimes constructing images, other times identifying categories of information in the text, and on still other occasions engaging in arguments with themselves about what a reading might mean” (Pressley and Afflerbach, 1995, as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 111). In addition, a good reader knows how to skip unknown words which are not critical (Grabe, 2009, p. 52).

A third factor involved in the process of reading is knowledge of syntactic structures to decode meaning in a sentence or the full text. Obviously L1 readers will have an advantage in relation to L2 readers. L2 readers in English in Vg1 have had several years of grammar input that give them a good starting point, but they will not have the same unconscious knowledge level of grammar as in their mother-tongue. Consequently, working on grammar aspects should be a part of the reading instruction. Research has been done which shows that reading problems can be to a great extent the result of lack of knowledge of the language (Yorio, 1971; Clarke, 1978, 1980; Alderson, 1984; as cited in Hudson, 2007, pp. 60-61).

## **Purpose of reading in the L2**

It seems clear “that most comprehension of a text is linked to purpose and it is important to consider reading within the context of that purpose” (Ferdman and Weber, 1994, as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 9). Teachers are expected to make evident the purpose of reading so that the

pupils know why it is important to read a text. By doing so, teachers avoid questions such as, “Why are we doing this?” (Guthrie, 2008, p.19). The reader’s attitude will be affected by the purpose of reading selected by the teacher in a positive or negative manner in their learning. If pupils think the teacher is interesting in giving tests and checking scores, comparing pupils to each other, they will not consider reading as an essential part of their learning. This can lead to achieving good marks or cheating so that reading can be undermined (Guthrie, 2008, pp. 6-7). In order to avoid this, it is necessary to have more focus on the purposes of reading in L2 and tell pupils the purpose of reading so that they are aware of it and know which strategies they might use.

Grabe (2009, p. 51) preferred to use the term *goals* instead of *purposes* and assumes that setting goals has to be considered as a basic processing component. As he stated, “goals provides reason for action and provide casual explanation for what other people are doing or what they want to see done”. He divided goals into two groups depending on the level of difficulty of the reading task. Finding information, checking facts and entertaining oneself are basic goals in contrast with advanced academic goals such as: summarizing a text, synthesizing multiple-source information, forming an argument, preparing for a test and studying to learn. The latter involve a more demanding understanding of the text since the reader has not only to interpret the text but he has to be critical of the information he reads (Grabe, 2009, 51). In this respect, different purposes of reading demand different reading abilities that can be improved by “teaching how to read for particular purposes” (Anderson: 2000, p. 397; cited in Grabe, 2009, p.7). Nevertheless, above the purpose of reading the teachers must demonstrate to their pupils that reading is worthwhile and create interesting reading opportunities (Smith, 2004, p. 222).

The following citation can give us a deeper insight into what the purpose of reading may be:

We don’t have to know something in advance in order to comprehend it. But we must be able to relate new things to what we already know. And relating something new to what we already know is of course learning. We learn to read, and we learn through reading, by elaborating what we know already. This is natural. (Smith, 2004, p. 13).

## **Long-term memory and working memory in reading in the L2**

There are different components in the cognitive process that work differently between an L1 and L2 reader. I have explained some of them in my previous sections when describing reading in L1. Nevertheless, I think it is relevant to mention how reading in L2 differs from L1 when it comes to terms of using long-term memory and working memory.

Firstly, working and long-term memory between an L1 and L2 reader function differently, secondly L2 readers in English can use different supporting resources when reading: dictionaries, grammar books, word lists, even factual texts (Grabe, 2009, p. 136). This is uncommon for an L1 reader whose reading process is faster compared with the L2 reader. Thirdly, the L1 reader has his background knowledge continually activated. In contrast, the L2 reader may need to work with certain language issues with the working memory before he activates his long term memory. Grabe (2009, p. 136) confirmed that an academically oriented L2 reader usually has acquired higher levels of metalinguistic awareness than monolingual L1 readers. He exemplified this by mentioning that the L2 readers use more supporting resources or make mental translations of different texts, recalling L1 synonyms for L2 words. The L2 reader uses the context to infer unknown words and is more aware of the type of word class to recognize useful morphological information. Finally, the L2 reader is also aware of text-structure, which gives him further clues to comprehend the text better. To sum up, there are many differences between an L1 and an L2 reader that may help us to see to what extent the needed strategies are learned. In the next section I will deal with two different types of learning processes that assist the reader. This can be of considerable interest to the teacher as well.

## **Implicit learning and explicit learning**

According to Grabe (2009, p. 60), learning may be divided between implicit learning and explicit learning. The reader will use different processes depending on which type of learning is involved. In order to train the processes involved in the different kinds of learning, different reading tasks should be selected.

Grabe (2009, p. 60) defined implicit learning as a learning process that involves learning processing skills and language knowledge without the reader's awareness of specific information he learns. The reader develops low-processes in reading such as word recognition, syntactic parsing and semantic encoding proposition automatically. Implicit

learning will help the reader to increase the use of routines, associations and habits that can support fluent reading. On the other hand, explicit learning supports high-level processes because it is a type of learning that involves conscious attention and awareness of specific strategies or language knowledge. In explicit learning, rehearsal in the working memory is necessary so that new information can be registered in the long-term memory and reactivated later. Tasks used to develop explicit learning are learning new vocabulary, new grammatical structures, new reading strategies by making notes, by making inferences from the context information or by explaining. The information learned is temporary unless it is recalled and used again. After practising explicit learning the reader should be exposed to continuous practice and repetition. Besides defining the two main types of learning, Grabe categorizes different types of reading that can be used in each category (Grabe, 2009, p. 63, see table 4.1).

### **Why is text-structure important in the L2 reading?**

Roe (2008, p. 47, my translation) stated that good knowledge of text structure played a crucial role in reading-comprehension as well in teaching how to read. Different texts provide different text markers to help the reader to develop comprehension. Generally, there are two types: *narrative texts and expository texts* (Grabe, 2009, pp. 249-250; Hudson, 2007, p.179). In the former the reader expects character development, conflicts, episodes, and conclusions; while in the latter the reader encounters conceptual information which in many cases is new for the reader. Its main characteristics are the large amount of facts, examples, details, and graphics which can be impenetrable for the less-skilled reader. On the contrary, narrative texts are easier to understand and attract the reader more from a motivational point of view since they may resemble to a greater extent the readers' situations and conflicts and expectations in regard to character development, conflicts, episodes, and conclusions (Grabe, 2009, pp. 249 - 50).

These conventional ways of telling a story, of relating sequences of events, are known as story grammars. They are the framework upon which various characters, plots, motives, and resolutions are linked in related episodes and represented in ways that will be intelligible (Smith: 2004, p. 47). Story grammars help L2 readers to recall stories better if the texts if the episodes in the stories are ordered in a conventional way (Carrell, 1984a, as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 187). On the other hand, expository texts or prose texts have less connection to background knowledge and personal experience. As mentioned above, these texts present

information such as examples, facts, details, and graphics to such an extent that for a poor reader it can be overwhelming. However, text structures reappear regularly both in narrative texts and expository texts, thus, they are worth pointing out instructionally (Grabe, 2009, pp. 250-251).

Hudson (2007, p. 192) supported the idea of using more time in teaching text structure in reading because research had showed that better readers are more able to use structure and therefore more able to deal with non-standard narrative presentations. To Hudson, text structure was a part of the learner's general syntactic, morphological and lexical knowledge and consequently a minimum command of grammar is required on the reader's side. Without this minimum linguistic threshold, the reader would not be able to process the text.

There are two concepts related to text-structure that are important to mention: *cohesion* and *coherence*. The former can be defined as the relationship between sentences or clause-units in the text. In other words, they are "linguistic features which link one sentence to another without reference to a higher level of analysis" (Irwin, 1986; as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 173). The latter involves the connections between the discourse propositions and the context where they are embedded (Campbell, 1995; as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 173). Coherence relies on different components but first of all cohesion. Hudson listed some of them such as text organization, situational consistency and consistency with the reader's background. I think that in order to cast more light on text-structure strategies, I need to find out more about cohesion.

*Cohesion* is achieved through linguistic marking devices that enable the reader to construct meaning. Halliday and Hasan (1976; cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 174) have classified cohesive devices into five categories:

- 1) referential (pronouns)
- 2) substitution of one word with another
- 3) ellipsis
- 4) conjunction, additive, adversative, causal, and temporal
- 5) lexical cohesion, including reiterations and collocations.

These categories are exemplified in Hudson (2007, p.174) as follows:

1) the use of the right pronoun includes cohesion. The example used is, *Mary drove to the market. She bought the milk.* 2) Substituting parts in the sentence as in, *Bob likes dogs.*

*Everybody he knows does.* 3) Omitting parts of the sentence as in, *Would you like to go to the store? I already have.* 4) Using conjunctions to link information in the sentence and further on in the text, *He planted the seeds before the season was over.* 5) Repetition of parts as in *Henry bought himself a new Jaguar. He practically lives in the new car.* This detailed description of all the different components involved in coherence casts light on how text structure works in the readers' mind.

As mentioned in the previous paragraph, there are certain textual signs that help the reader to connect information within the sentences or paragraphs. These are also called connective devices and need more focus on in L2 language teaching if we want to help less able readers to become higher level readers. Such knowledge can be taught to pupils so that they will increase their understanding (Grabe, 2009, p. 255). The importance of function words is taken into consideration in previous research and they indicated that in expository texts, linking words can guide the reader in his aim to construct meaning in the text. Reading expository texts demands more concentration than narrative texts because the reader "has less knowledge on which to rely, and the lack of explicit cues in the surface code may lead to great variability in representations constructed by different individuals"(Goldman & Rakestraw, 2000; Reichenberg, 2000; as cited in Anmarkrud, 2009, p.53). In expository texts, linking words can guide the reader in his aim to construct meaning in the text. Reading expository texts demands more concentration than reading narrative texts since the reader is more concerned with integrating text content to their previous knowledge (Graesser, 2007; Graesser et al., 1994, as cited in Anmarkrud, 2009, p. 54).

Indeed, there are different purposes of reading but I have to limit my research group which is first-year high school pupils in their last year of English as an obligatory subject. Therefore, I will concentrate on the type of reading which they will need mostly in their future academic life, *reading to learn*. The next section will be a presentation of what reading to learn is and basic reading comprehension strategies before-reading, while-reading and after-reading that are commonly used. Then I will move on to describe reading strategies particularly in reading to learn. This will make clearer what these strategies involve when I present the results of the data I have collected in my survey.

## 2.4 Reading to learn and reading strategies

### 2.4.1 Reading to learn

This is a more demanding type of reading compared to for instance scanning and skimming where searching for specific information or getting a general idea are the main purpose for reading. According to Grabe (2009; p. 9), reading to learn is mainly used in academic and professional settings. This type of reading involves more activity and attention in the reader's mind because it demands that "the reader recalls the main ideas of a text and many supportive ideas that has to be remembered when it is needed" (Carver, 1992a; Chall, 1983 [stage 3]; Enright et al., 2000; as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 9). In general this type of reading implies using active learning strategies, making inferences, active goal setting and monitoring. Reading to learn also requires some effort to integrate information into organizational "frameworks or schemata" that can be of four types: content, formal, cultural and linguistic (Carrell, 1983b; 1988a; cited in Urquhart, 1998, pp. 69-71). Urquhart & Weir (1998, p. 72) prefers to use background knowledge for content or cultural schema, Bernhardt's "literary" component (Bernhardt, 1991b; as cited in Urquhart, 1998, p. 72) for formal schema and linguistic schemata under different areas of language. These researchers assume that reading to learn is a combination of strategies and content. This section will therefore deal with reading strategies embedded in reading to learn in English L2.

### 2.4.2 Definition of reading skills and reading strategies in the L2

To begin with, as mentioned above, a *skill* is an unconscious act which is applied automatically when it is needed. It is a cognitive ability which a person is able to use in his interaction with written texts or in other words when he deals with written texts.

Skills are informational processing techniques that are automatic, whether at the level of recognizing grapheme-phoneme correspondence or summarizing a story. Skills are applied to text unconsciously for many reasons including expertise, repeated practice, and compliance with directions, luck, and naïve use. (Paris, Wasik, and Turner 199, p.611; as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 221).

In other words, the reader has skills that automatize different low-level processes such as word recognition, phonological and orthographic processes and lexical access as well as



syntactic parsing and semantic proposition formation. “Skills are acquired through practice...they are not innate but must be learned and ... performed with economic effort” (Proctor and Dutta, 1995, p. 18; as cited by Hudson, 2007, p. 78). In contrast, strategies “are actions selected deliberately to achieve particular goals. An emerging skill can become a strategy when it is used intentionally” (Paris et al., 1996, pp. 610-11; as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 106). If strategy means a deliberate act which involves awareness, strategies can be taught to pupils. It may be the case that pupils have strategies that need to be rehearsed in order to become skills. Nevertheless, the distinction between skills and strategies is sometimes unclear because sometimes strategies are neither consciously used, nor planned in the process of reading. (Afflerbach, Pearson, & Paris, 2008; as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 221). If this is the case, the reader may feel uncertain about what kind of strategy he uses or whether he uses a strategy or not. Lack of awareness of strategy use can undermine the process of reading. If fluent readers have automatized their reading skills through active attention and doing tasks, it is simply a question of being more conscious about the use of strategies in the reading process.

A good reader has also the necessary strategies to repair his reading process when comprehension fails. These strategies have been called *metacognitive strategies* and they are described as “strategies that require an explicit awareness of reading itself and that most strongly support the goals of reading” (Grabe, 2009, p. 223). Grabe gave as an example of metacognitive strategy learning to monitor comprehension. However, other researchers did not agree with Grabe in that monitoring comprehension or repairing miscomprehension are themselves specific strategies (Baker, 2002; Bialystok, 2001; Block & Pressley, 2002a; Pressley, 2002b; as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 223). In their opinion “checking a factual statement, rethinking a prior inference, noticing a discourse signal, recognizing the organization of a text segment, making a new prediction, rereading the prior sentence” (Pressley, 2002a; cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 223) were not resources for understanding and using strategies. Instead, they were levels of metacognitive awareness that consciously direct use to support reader goals (Bialystok, 2001, 2002; Baker, 2002, 2008; as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 223). Whether there are metacognitive strategies or not, they are procedures to better understand texts and the pupils need them in the reading process. While the difference between the high-level or skilled reader and low-level or weak reader lies in the fact that the former is aware of what he deals with when reading while the latter is not. Therefore, it is necessary to spend time making pupils more aware of the use of reading strategies in English.

I will in the following section summarize reading strategies that a good reader is aware of, and explain why it is relevant to improve the pupils' metacognitive awareness in the reading process

### **2.4.3 Different reading strategies in the L2**

According to the current researchers (Grabe, 2009; Roe, 2008) good readers are the best model for reading strategies. Good readers use a large number of strategies. They read selectively according to established goals. Then, they read carefully the parts of the text that contain important information related to these goals. If they miss relevant information they reread parts of the text to improve their understanding or they make inferences through previous knowledge about the topic. They will not stop the reading process because of unknown words, but probably guess their meaning by studying the context. Moreover, they consider the text-structure information as a guide to understand the content and integrate ideas from different parts of the text so that they end up with a summary. Besides, good readers evaluate the text and the author and, as a result, they form feelings about the text and last but not least they attempt to resolve difficulties (Pressley, 2002a, 2002b, 2006; as cited in Grabe 2009, p. 228).

The description above illustrates the general process of reading of skilled readers, but we need to know more about specific reading strategies that are used. Therefore, I will give examples of comprehension strategies that may give us ideas about how to organize the reading sessions in the classroom. These strategies may be divided into pre-, while- and post-reading strategies as according to Paris et al. (1996, as cited by Hudson, 2007, p. 108). I think that many of these strategies are known for L2 teachers, and they will not be surprised to find strategies that they have already practised in the classroom.

In relation to reading strategies I have chosen Paris' list (Paris et al., 1996; cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 108) because he has included basic reading comprehension strategies in all the different parts of the reading process such as pre-reading strategies, while-reading strategies and after-reading strategies. I believe that a brief presentation of examples of strategies from all these three processes can help us become more aware of the L2 reading process.

## **Pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading strategies in the classroom**

### **Pre-reading strategies:**

Pre-reading strategies are used before reading a text in the class. One purpose is to create a good atmosphere around the reading session even before the reading goal is defined. Another is to introduce the reader to the topic in a natural manner in order to have access to background knowledge stored in the long-term memory. The teacher can do this in different ways, e.g. by asking questions around the title. This strategy is to help pupils activate another strategy which is putting words that are related to each other into semantic maps. This means that the reader organizes background knowledge in schemata so that he is ready to receive new information that may be located in the mind-maps. When this is done the reader quickly skims the text to get a general idea of what the text is about. While he skims the text he will see if there are other visual components that may guide him to make prediction. At this point the reader should also focus on text structure and genre which will help him predict future information.

### **While-reading strategies:**

In this part of the reading process, the most important strategy will be identifying the main idea. However, whether this strategy should be used or not depends in part on the purpose of reading. In some cases the reader is not supposed to find the author's main idea but other sub-points. Therefore, the identification of the main idea will continually be revised and evaluated by the reader. What is more, the reader compares the information he is reading with the new mental text he is elaborating in his mind after bringing up his background knowledge. He determines whether information should be remembered or not and continually evaluates the text. If the reader has comprehension problems, he will be aware of using a strategy that draws on other strategies, e.g. will reread passages thus restoring comprehension failures. Research has shown that less skilled readers do not reread difficult parts of the text, but "read in a linear fashion instead" (Garner and Reis, 1981; as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 110).

### **Post-reading strategies:**

These strategies are used for the tasks the reader is asked to do. It seems to me that Hudson (2007, p. 108) is unclear about what to call these procedures: strategies, tasks or purposes. If

the purpose is to prepare a project, the strategy is to learn the content but if the purpose is to read for pleasure, the strategy is to evaluate the text and the writer. In other instructional or applied contexts the strategies may be more directed towards deciding whether the reader's comprehension is good enough. Rereading may, in fact, be a good post-reading strategy.

This classification helps us to give a clearer idea of reading strategies but it does not mean that there are not others that can be used. According to Pressley and Afflerbach (1995, as cited by Hudson, 2009, p. 111) there are hundreds of reading strategies. Describing all of them would be far too time-consuming. I have therefore decided to make a shorter list.

The different comprehension reading strategies I have presented may probably be reorganized as types of strategies which many teachers have used in their reading sessions. The question is, however, whether teachers use them in a way which makes pupils aware of them so that they in their turn use them as part of their reading habits. Is it possible that teachers who are disorganized or inconsistent in their use of strategies and lack awareness in their planning may influence pupils in a negative way so the latter do not become skilled readers? It might be interesting to cite Smith's (2004) opinion about learning to read to highlight the importance of creating a good system that can help pupils to read:

Learning to read is not necessarily a problem at any age – unless there are years of reading confusion and failure in the past. This leads to the second reason why some people have so much trouble learning to read. They've been confused. Instead of being helped, they've been handicapped.(p. 4).

I am convinced that systematizing the use of reading strategies may be a start in order to achieve better results in pupils' reading process. This thought brings me to Roe (2008, pp. 16-17, my own translation) who stated that writing competence in Norway has improved in recent years among young Norwegian pupils thanks to a continuous systematic and careful assessment in the teachers' planning. She proposed a similar planning in reading and gives not only examples of different reading strategies but also reading models and different ways of reading assessment. I choose Roe's summary of reading strategies because of her research on reading and writing didactics in Norway lately, and her participation in PISA report 2007. She is an example of a highly qualified researcher whose knowledge in this field can be integrated in the target language removed context (Graves, 2008, p. 155), which is, as a matter

of fact, the English Vg1 pupils' classroom. In the next section I will present Roe's bank of reading strategies inspired from different researchers.

### **Roe's bank of strategies**

There are three central concepts that Roe (2008, p. 82; my own translation) pointed out in her introduction about reading strategies: metacognition, motivation and self-learning, which that play a decisive role in reading in L1. Roe focused mainly on reading to learn in the L1.

Although my thesis is on reading in L2, I believe that many of her ideas can add relevant information to my theory chapter and clarify reading strategies that a reader needs in reading to learn. I think that when Roe presents reading strategies, she is aware of communicating with a type of reader that is eager to use her advice effectively in future planning in reading, no matter if it is the L1 or L2. Her goal is to describe strategies so that teachers can help pupils to increase their reading comprehension (Roe, 2008, p. 85). What is more, she is concerned about Norwegian pupils, which I think is very important to take into consideration since she represents an example of a researcher that focuses on the needs of learners within the classroom itself as a community (Graves, 2008; p. 164). Nevertheless, Roe focuses on L1 readers, as I mentioned before, but she believes that teachers would be able to adapt these strategies to their learners' needs.

To begin with, she agrees that strategies and skills belong to two different categories. The former demands effort to use different means in order to understand a text. Consequently, reading strategies will help the reader to enforce their reading comprehension. Therefore, she makes a taxonomy of reading strategies and commented on them.

Roe starts by giving a list of good reading strategies used by an engaged reader. The list has been part of another study in this field by Nell K. Duke and P. David Pearson (2002, pp. 205-205; as cited in Roe, 2008, pp. 85-86; my own translation). To sum up, a good reader is a person that reads actively, but in different ways depending on the purpose of reading. Before they start reading, they have a general view of the text to discover its structure and relevant information at once. They do not waste too much time in their first contact with a text. Afterwards, they read the text rapidly without spending too much time in looking up meanings. A good reader first elicits the meaning of words through context and background information. In short, it is a continuous interaction between the text and the reader, in which the reader interprets and summarises during the reading process, thus creating his own text.

Last but not least, a good reader needs to have a good metacognitive competence which enables him to monitor his reading.

As far as reading strategies are concerned, Roe presents four models: Palinscar and Brown's model from 1984, Duke and Pearson's and McLaughlin and Allen's from 2002 and Braunger and Lewis's from 2006 (Roe, 2008, p. 88). All these strategies selected are appropriate for expository texts, but some of them can also be used in narrative texts. All of them have in common one goal: to be used when comprehension problems appear and they should be used in reading to learn (Roe, 2008; p. 88-89 my translation).

**Table 1: Roe's summary chart (2008, reproduced from p. 88, my own translation)**

	McLaughlin and Allen	Braunger and Lewis	Reciprocal model Palinscar and Brown	Duke and Pearson
Preparing reading	X			
Anticipating meaning		X	X	X
Monitoring	X	X		
Forming questions	X	X	X	X
Relating ideas	X			
Drawing conclusions		X		
Inferring			X	
Visualizing the text	X			X
Reflecting aloud				X
Selective reading		X		
Clarifying		X		
Focusing on language	X			
Focusing on text structure				X
Evaluating / assessing	X			
Summarizing	X	X	X	X

Before Roe describes each strategy, she classifies them in two groups: *common strategies* and *other strategies*. As can be seen from the chart, Roe finds out that only two strategies are used by all the researchers: *forming questions* and *summarizing*. In addition, three of them agree on *anticipating meaning* as a convenient strategy, and two of them include visualizing the text. The other strategies which are not shared by all of them include: *preparing reading*, *monitoring*, *relating ideas*, *inferring or drawing conclusions*, *clearing up*, *reflecting with pupils*, *selective reading*, *focusing on language and language structure* and *evaluating*.

As I pointed out above, teachers have to adapt these strategies to the pupils' needs. In other words, pupils' age, reading level, reading situation, type of text and content have to be taken into consideration before explaining and modelling these strategies in the classroom. Finally, focus on the cognitive process, as well as the fact that strategies do not work in isolation and overlap each other, has also to be discussed with the pupils in advance (Roe, 2008, pp. 87-89).

## **1 Common strategies:**

In this category Roe includes *forming questions* and *summarizing*. Both strategies are to be found in all the four researchers. What are these categories?

### **1.1 Forming questions**

The strategy is much used in reading sessions. In Roe's description there are examples of how to improve the type of questions to a text. By doing so, the pupil will acquire a deeper understanding of the text. Both PISA and PIRLS surveys have used four categories suggested by Chiardello (1998, as cited in Roe, 2008, p. 95) in reading tests. The four categories involve using key questioning words and different cognitive operations pupils need to use when reading.

An example would be starting an information finding by *what*, *who*, *why*, which will guide the pupils in different cognitive processes like *to name*, *to define*, *to point out*. Next, an interpretation question is normally presented by *why*, *how*, *in what way*. Their respective cognitive processes will be *to explain*, *to find meanings in the text*, *to compare and to contrast*. Finally, a reflective question may be introduced by asking pupils their opinion about

the text. At the same time pupils use similar cognitive operations such as *to judge, to support, to make hypotheses or draw conclusions*.

However, as Roe said, it is important when teaching such strategies that pupils are asked to make their own questions. This would be a different way to apply this strategy and will help pupils to increase their understanding much more of the text than if the teacher or the book simply gives them the questions.

## **1.2 Summarizing**

Summarizing is another strategy that helps pupils to recall what they have read. It implies writing a shorter version of the text they have read.

Roe gives two examples of a systematic way of teaching this strategy. The first one is most concerned with the different stages this strategy includes. It is more than writing just a shorter text in your own words, but according to Mc Neil and Donant (1982, as cited in Roe, 2008, p. 109); this strategy can be divided into sub-strategies such as excluding unnecessary parts in the summary which are not relevant and finding synonyms to replace existing relevant words in the text you read. Sometimes a sentence in the text can summarize the main topic and if not, pupils have to write their own sentence.

Another approach to be considered is GIST (Cunningham, 1982, cited in Roe, 2008, p. 109), which stands for Generating Interaction between Schemata and Text. As for the previous approach, the main focus lies in writing a new version of the read text but using fewer words. Pupils can increase the number of words in the next version but the amount of words used has to be the same for all pupils. In the classroom this strategy can start in small groups, continue in pairs and finish individually.

## **1.3 Preparing and anticipating meaning**

Both strategies share a common factor and this is motivation. Teachers need to create motivation before they start using strategies. It does not help to tell the pupils that this text is part of the readings or final exams. By using such arguments, teachers are not raising any motivation in the classroom. Instead, it is necessary for teachers to raise expectations and curiosity in a more creative way without forgetting to tell pupils the purpose of reading the texts. Then they can ask pupils what they know about the topic and which things they want to



know more about. Afterwards they will be more engaged in the reading and they can mark things they knew in advance and write down the new ideas.

In this part there is an example of how to use reading strategies with literary texts. Although I am concerned with expository texts, it may be interesting how Fielding et al. (1990, cited in Roe: 2008, p. 91) presented an example with short stories. As he stated, they can be introduced by letting pupils know some key words in advance and let them organise them according to their expectations in the story. A more advanced form proposed by this author is to give them *predictograms* (McLaughlin & Allen, 2002; as cited in Roe, 2008, p. 92) which are diagrammatic classifications with titles related to the content of the story.

#### **1.4 Visualizing the text**

Creating a picture of the text in your mind is a good reading strategy. In literature it can be easier to imagine how you would portray the events or thoughts while in an informative text teachers need to have a mind-map or diagrams with which contents can be organised. Roe emphasizes that this strategy can be used as a quality control of other strategies and text comprehension. On the other hand, visual information can be part of some texts such as charts, diagrams, tables that need to be explained by the teacher so that pupils can interpret the information and are able to interpret it by themselves in future.

#### **1.5 Monitoring**

One of the most important reasons for not reading actively is the lack of concentration of the reader. Consequently, the reader needs to use a strategy that keeps him engaged during his reading. A very easy way to do this is by letting the pupils mark parts of the text that they knew about previously or things that sound familiar and understandable when carrying out the reading activity.

Different marks can be used to show the readers' reaction to content while they are reading. For example question marks can be used if they do not know the meaning of a word or a statement. A minus sign can show that this piece of information was the opposite of what the reader thought, while a plus sign means that a piece of information is totally new for the reader.

According to Roe, this strategy is one the most extensive or global of all the reading strategies because it implies a high level of awareness of how the reader uses reading strategies when comprehension problems appear.

## **1.6 Relating ideas**

This strategy can be seen from two points of view. On the one hand, it can be used to relate ideas to previous knowledge, experiences or reading experience by the reader about the topic the text is about. On the other hand, it can be to relate parts of the content in the text. The teacher should spend time explaining how important this strategy is; so as to understand the text better. In addition the teacher can give an example by reading part of text aloud and describe which associations the text gives him. Pupils should be given questions which can help them to put this strategy into practice. Questions such as *This reminds me of..., I remember when I., I know something about this., I felt the same way when..., If this was me, I would;* can help pupils to develop this strategy.

## **1.7 Drawing conclusions / Inferring**

This approach (Roe, 2008, p. 96) enables pupils to relate information in the text to previous knowledge as well as to be able to draw their own conclusions in order to interpret the text. As a matter of fact, drawing conclusions is such an important part of reading comprehension that it is not really considered a reading strategy. Nevertheless, this strategy is presented as one part of the multiple-strategy instruction called QAR (Question Answer and Response), mentioned in Grabe (2009, p. 232). Its main characteristic is that by using this strategy pupils will develop more awareness of how to relate text information to different type of questions. Furthermore, they will answer more effectively after repeated practice and will be able to produce their own questions with a higher level of awareness in their comprehension-monitoring abilities.

## **1.8 Clarifying**

This reading strategy takes into account the fact that pupils have found a problem in comprehending the text and they will put into practice a solution. That means that the reader is quite engaged in reading, and he will stop and reread sentences or paragraphs that are difficult for them. The reader can always have some questions helping them with

comprehension before the reading starts. Depending on the type of the texts the questions can also be different. As Roe suggests there are questions that are better suited to a literary text than a factual text (Roe, 2008, p. 97).

## **1.9 Reading aloud**

Roe points out that when a text is difficult to understand, pupils will be helped by reading aloud; in order to put words for the difficult parts. It enables the pupil to listen to their own thoughts while reading. Reading aloud will help the pupils to concentrate more in their reading. In addition it will give more clarity as to how the complicated parts are related to each other. The best way of doing this is by the teacher giving an example in the classroom (Gordon and Pearson, 1983; cited in Roe, 2008, p. 100). A good example of the usefulness of this strategy is that pupils themselves think that *reading implies thinking* (Bereiter and Bird, 1985; as cited in Roe, 2008, pp. 100-101)

All in all, the list of strategies presented up to now clarifies what it is required from pupils and how teachers can model strategies in the classroom. It is clear that in some cases one single strategy includes other strategies, which in my opinion is an advantage since teachers can organize teaching strategies in groups and this will be less time-consuming and easier for pupils to integrate in their reading. The next four strategies that follow are both extensive and demanding. Therefore, it is important to give pupils enough time to understand and practise them in the classroom.

## **1.10 Selective reading and finding relevant information**

A good reader needs to find out what is relevant in the text they are reading. Most of the readers know and have practised some kind of strategies. They are called *organising strategies* and they are for example: to write key-words, short summaries, to mark lines in the text, or to draw a mind map (Roe, 2007; as cited in Roe, 2008, p. 102).

In this strategy, speed is considered an important factor which determines the type of reading the reader will select. Roe summarizes three types of reading: high-frequency reading, super-reading and picture-reading (Stangeland and Forsth, 2001, in Roe, 2008, p. 103). The first implies very fast reading, maximum 500 words in one minute, where the reader understands most of the content. Scanning and skimming are the next strategies to be

considered in super-reading, which means reading at high speed. For Stangeland and Forsth, these strategies are used when the reader is looking for specific information.

As Roe states, teachers never know if pupils have understood the most important information when skimming a text. Therefore, pupils should think more about how the text is presented and pay attention to titles, introduction, definition and conclusion. Pupils have to practice these strategies by reading the first sentences in the first paragraphs and paying attention to key-words related to text-structure.

### **1.11 Focusing on language/words**

This strategy analyses how teachers can help pupils in reading in their subject by focusing on necessary key words. There will always be unknown words for pupils when reading new texts. If the pupils have to find out their meaning by themselves, it will be time-consuming and their reading speed will be slower. Thus, focus on unknown words can be done by being more aware of word morphology.

In relation to word formation, Lyster (2001; as cited in Roe, 2008, p. 105) stated that morphological awareness was vital for weak readers so that they could develop vocabulary and consequently reading-comprehension. Examples of this are to teach pupils how words are formed with the help of morphemes.

Roe supported this idea by pointing out that the teacher should use time to present new and difficult words and how they are used in different contexts. More exposure to reading and more discussion in groups with the teacher in the classroom will help pupils to understand new words and concepts and interpret metaphors. Roe compared this to reading aloud to small children where parents spend time explaining words or clarifying metaphors in a natural and joyful fashion.

### **1.12 Focusing on text structure**

Teaching textual markers both in narrative and expository texts will improve reading-comprehension. Roe (2008, p. 106) gives a brief description of what kind of text markers the reader may find in a prosaic text. Since I have taken this issue before in this chapter because of its importance in the reading process, I will not stop to explain this strategy.

### **1.13 Evaluate / assess the text**

In order to increase text awareness Roe (2008, p. 110) proposes that pupils should evaluate the text they are reading. Every text is written for a special purpose: to inform, to entertain or to teach something. When the pupils are reading they should take the initiative to adopt a critical role. Teachers can help pupils to develop this strategy by asking pupils what they like best in the text, what they think is the most relevant part, what was difficult. All these three questions have to be followed by a question-word “why”. And another important question would be to know if they have learnt something new from the text. Both questions would give the pupil the opportunity of being aware of their own reading process and learn to be critical in their reading.

To sum up, I have up to now summarized two different lists of strategies that can be used in readings sessions. The former classifies basic reading comprehension strategies in relation to time before, while or after reading. In contrast, the latter is a taxonomy presenting reading strategies used mostly in expository texts but some of them also possibly in narrative texts in the process of reading to learn and according to frequency of use among researchers. Nevertheless, none of them integrate these strategies in a specific teaching session. The question is whether teachers can integrate them effectively in a reading session on their own or whether they need further examples/theory of how to teach these strategies. It is equally significant to consider the fact that teachers need to give more feedback in reading to their pupils. As I have mentioned above, Roe argued the need to being systematic and careful with reading feedback and assessment so that pupils can develop their reading skills in L1 (Roe, 2008, p. 165). This brings me to my next section in which I will explain how reading skills and strategies can be transferred from the L1 to the L2.

## **2.5 Transferring reading strategies and other knowledge sources from the L1 to L2**

Poor reading in L2 can be caused by two factors: lack of language knowledge in the L2 and absence of employing good and proper reading skills from the L1 into the L2 (Alderson, 1984, p. 4; as cited by Hudson: 2007; p. 61). Alderson supported his hypothesis by arguing that bilinguals in general read well in L1 and L2 due to some transferability of reading ability

to a certain degree. In case this was not a given situation, there were bilinguals that did not read well. Consequently, Alderson supported Clarke's research in that a certain threshold of second language competence has to be reached before successful language reading was possible (Clarke, 1978; as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 62).

In this section of my thesis I will give a brief account of research done on second language reading from the 70s and the 80s, through the 90s and up to the current situation. The information I will present is mainly gathered from Bernhardt (2005), who also saw working with teachers as a challenge integrating new methodologies in the search for a new model of reading in second language.

### **2.5.1 Research towards a model of second language reading**

According to Bernhardt (2005) readers' performance in the L2 seemed to be affected by different sources such as grammar, vocabulary, text structure, syntax, comprehension strategies, background knowledge and motivation working in a team work towards the best output in the process of reading. Nevertheless, research in this field has not found a solution to effective reading instruction that may integrate these sources in a teaching context.

Bernhardt (2005) described *1970s and 1980s* as a period where research in this field was influenced by schema theory and psycholinguistics. L2 reading studies were a replica of what was being done in L1 reading. She claimed that schema theory researchers made assumptions about a second language reading process based on first language literacy. Underlying dimensions of either the first or second language process were not part of these projects. This led people to believe that the L2 reading problem was either a "grammar issue" or a "prior knowledge issue" until it was found that having prior knowledge was not enough help in successful L2 reading. Obviously, different components such as word recognition, syntax, vocabulary and prior knowledge interacted with each other and consequently they affected the reader's performance.

The 90s is described as a more prosperous period because there was more focus on finding theories that dealt with L2 reading independently from research on L1 reading. The same reading components such as grammar and orthography were taken into account but at the same time new ones appear focusing on the reader's sociocultural background as well as the sociocultural aspect in the text. To put it more simply, on the one hand, pupils are

influenced by their social and cultural background such as social and cultural expectations in politics, religion, ethnicity, economy and social institutions. On the other hand, texts in L2 are influenced by the same kind of sociocultural expectations with the difference that they may be different from the readers' L1. Logically, an L2 reader needs to have knowledge about sociocultural aspects in L2 in order to understand the information in the texts (Grabe, 2009, p. 152).

However, thanks to Alderson (Alderson & Urquhart, 1984; as cited in Bernhardt, 2005, p. 136), research started pointing to two independent categories in the reading process: reading ability and language knowledge. In other words, how much of the reading problem in L2 is due to reading problems caused by lack of grammar or lack of literacy competence in L1? Researchers, including Bernhardt (1995), went on to design different reading tasks that measure language literacy in L1 and L2 and present the results of the pupils using statistical analysis. In Bernhardt's quantitative studies (2000, as cited in Bernhardt, 2005, p. 137), it was estimated that the influence of first language reading to second language reading was 20%, and 30% was due to language knowledge. Despite the fact that there is transfer of language and literacy skills, Bernhardt asked new questions such as, "How much is transferred? Under what conditions and in which contexts?" As she noted, there was a linguistic threshold but this did not give concrete answers to the previous questions. What is still lacking? As Bernhardt pointed out, "processing strategies, specific to the language in question" needed to be included when "the reader moves towards higher levels of proficiency" (Bernhardt, 2005, p. 138). This has been the main objective in recent years and according to Bernhardt the field of second language reading has improved significantly.

### **2.5.2 The compensatory model of second language reading**

The main contribution of the 90s is Bernhardt's research on the compensatory model of second language reading, already mentioned by Stanovich (1980, as cited in Bernhardt, 2005; p. 140). This model describes how knowledge sources work actively together only when they are required. Bernhardt described it using the following adverbs: "synchronically, interactively and synergistically". In other words, different knowledge sources assist or replace other knowledge sources that are inadequate. The three knowledge sources that are involved are "language knowledge, L1 literacy and unexplained variances". The first is *language knowledge* which consists of grammar, vocabulary knowledge (morphology),

cognates in L1 and L2 (words with similar etymology) and linguistic distance (differences between the languages). The second, L1 *literacy*, includes alphabets, vocabulary, text structure and syntax. The third one is called by Bernhardt *unexplained variance* and it includes comprehension strategies, engagement, content and domain knowledge, interest and motivation.

In figure 1, Bernhardt gives illustrative examples of interaction of the sources in practical situations. She mentions that word recognition is easier for the L2 reader if he is familiar with the language alphabet of L2, although he does need not to have too much language knowledge. Higher literacy in L1 level will accelerate the reading process in L2 and higher language knowledge in L1 will make the L2 reader more independent and able to process syntactic information. In short, L2 reading is a continuous interaction of knowledge sources.

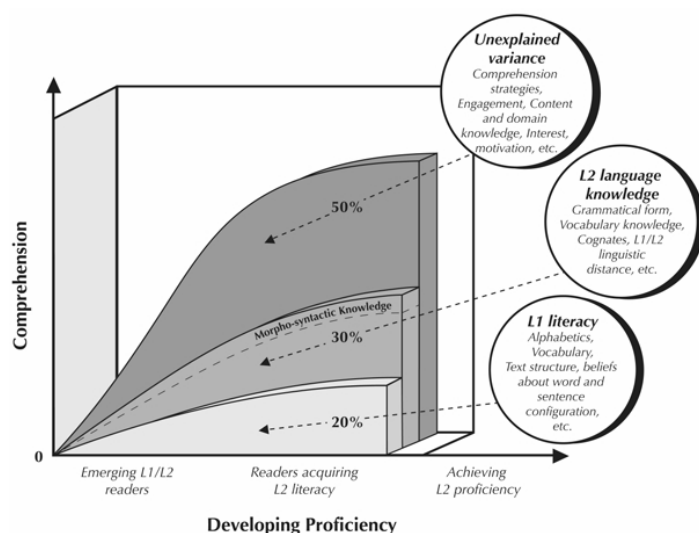


Figure 1: reproduced from Bernhardt (2005, p.140)

## 2.6 Summary

The aim of this chapter has been to give a general description of what the reading process in the L1 and the L2 implies; its similarities and its differences in order to throw more light on the complex process of reading in English L2 for Norwegian pupils at the Vg1 level.



What is similar in reading in L1 and L2 is the fact that the reader is interacting with the text in order to understand it and form his personal interpretation. This communication between reader and text differs from L1 and L2 but if it is assumed that a good reader is the model to follow, the reading process will succeed. What characterizes a good reader is his self-awareness of monitoring the reading process and knowing how to solve problems when comprehension is interrupted. Besides, the good reader has a clear purpose before reading starts and has good text structure knowledge. Furthermore, he knows which reading strategies can be used in the process when comprehension problems appear. In some cases, these strategies have become skills due to continuous practice so that the reader uses them without being aware. Finally, the good reader also adopts a critical evaluation towards the information he receives in the text creating his own interpretation of it according to the purpose of reading (Roe, 2008, p. 85; my own translation).

The second similarity is that the process of reading either in L1 and L2 can be divided into two processes. The first is called lower-level processing and deals with word recognition, syntactic parsing and semantic decoding. It is obvious that this process requires less effort in the L1. The second, higher-level processing is concerned with types of text the reader is exposed to. There is one model text that the reader receives but after reading it, he creates his own text influenced by their previous language and factual knowledge (Grabe, 2009, chap. 2 and 3). This final mental text is referred to in research as the situational model (see section 2.2.1). Either lower-level processing or higher-level processing can be compared to bottom-up and top-down approaches. Nevertheless, it is not as simple as that, as recent research shows. As a matter of fact, it is a combination of both levels and approaches. The current situation in this field of research points towards a compensatory reading model presented by Bernhardt (2005) and already maintained by another researcher over twenty years ago, Stanovich (1980; as cited in Bernhardt, 2005, p. 140). According to Bernhardt (2005, p. 140), there are different knowledge sources that assist or replace other knowledge sources in the reading process in the reader's mind. These knowledge sources are of three types: language, literacy and unexplained variance. In regard to the third source, I find it necessary to focus more on reading strategies and I present them from two points of view according to the literature I have used (Paris et al., 1996; as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 108; Roe's chart, 2008, p. 88 and cf. Block & Pressley, 2002a; Duke & Pearson, 2002, 235; Guthrie, Wigfield, & Perencevich, 2004b; Pressley, 2002b, Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002, as cited in Grabe, 2009, p.218). On the one hand, I have provided the reader with a general view of basic reading comprehensive

reading comprehension strategies divided into three basic moments in the reading process: pre-reading, while-reading and after-reading (Paris et al., 1996, as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 108). On the other hand, I have given a short definition of all the strategies that I found relevant in Roe (2009, pp. 87-111, my translation) for L1 readers that can be adapted to Norwegians L2 readers in English. The choice of Roe's bank of strategies is based on the fact that they can be used in order to improve reading to learn in L2 English expository texts but some of them also possibly in narrative texts.

To finish with, the chapter brings in the latest discussion about how the different knowledge sources may be transferred from L1 to L2. In the attempt of moving towards a new model of L2 reading, Bernhardt (2005) believed that these sources worked like a team trying to do their best when assisting the reader but she still found it challenging to integrate the compensatory reading model in the teaching context without further research, including more languages than just English as L2.

As teachers are obliged to use and adapt reading strategies according to the National Curriculum in Norway, I will in the next chapter look into how reading strategies are viewed in the English LK06 syllabus in Norway.

# 3 The LK06 Curriculum

## 3.1 Overview

This chapter provides a brief overview of what a language syllabus and curriculum are and a general presentation of the Norwegian English syllabus in Vg 1, LK06. I will then analyse what kind of syllabus the English LK06 is, following Breen's types of syllabuses. Next, I will deal with reading, its importance as one of the main skills in the LK06, and the competency aims for reading and reading strategies mentioned in the English LK06 syllabus. I will then sum up what a syllabus requires with regard to reading and reading strategies. Finally, I will comment on how syllabi influence teaching, directly and indirectly.

## 3.2 What are syllabus and curriculum?

In Norway there is no distinction between the terms “syllabus” and “curriculum” since the same word *læreplaner* is used in their translation. However, these terms are used differently in Britain and in the US so it is worth checking their definitions before deciding to use one of them further in my thesis.

To begin with, as Marsh (2009, p. 3) reminded us; curriculum comes from Latin and its original meaning is “racecourse”, which in a manner resembles how many students metaphorically perceive it at school: “the curriculum is a race to be run, a series of obstacles or hurdles (subjects) to be passed”.

Nowadays, in English there are two terms: “curriculum and syllabus” and their uses differ, as mentioned above, in Britain and in the US. According to Nunan (1988, p. 14) in the US they are more accustomed to using the term “curriculum” than “syllabus” and it designates planning, implementing and evaluation of the curriculum as well as for a particular course of instruction. On the other hand in Britain, as Nunan continues describing; the term “syllabus” denotes that part of the “curriculum” activity concerned with the specification and ordering of course content or input. However, to Nunan “curriculum” comprises the previous components of the syllabus but also two more: methodology and evaluation. In general, there is evidence that depending on what kind of approach we have, we may use the term *syllabus*

or *curriculum*. If there is a broad approach, the term is curriculum, with syllabus for a narrow approach. In other words, a syllabus specifies “the content of a course and the order in which that content will be taught” (Nunan, 1988; cited in Graves, 2008, p. 159). Having tried to clarify what the terms mean I will use in my thesis the term syllabus.

In 1987, Breen gave the following definition of the syllabus:

A syllabus is primarily a plan of what is to be achieved through teaching and learning. ....the plan will specify and select particular aspects of a target language and/or its use in social situations for a range of personal and social purposes. The plan details objectives or selected outcomes of teaching and learning work. (Breen, 1987a, p. 82)

Breen modified this definition some years later by clarifying the four elements that the syllabus consists of: aims, content, methodology and evaluation. He also insists on the aspect of methodology and negotiation between teachers and learners. (Breen, 2001, p. 154)

He also includes different requirements the syllabus should provide:

- A framework of the knowledge and skills teachers and learners are to work on
- Continuity and sense of direction
- A retrospective account of what has been achieved
- A basis on which learners’ progress may be evaluated
- Content suitable for the broader language curriculum, the classroom group and the educational and social situation of the course.

In order to classify the syllabuses that have been in use until now, Breen points out four main organizing principles that a syllabus designer needs to take into account: focus, selection, subdivision and sequence. Using these criteria, Breen finds four main types of syllabuses:

- The formal syllabus type based on grammatical items.
- The functional syllabus focusing on language function in speech.
- The task-based syllabus emphasizing different tasks which will help develop more communicative competence.
- The process syllabus which follows ideas of the task-based syllabus with the important difference that both the contents and the methodology of this syllabus is negotiated between the teacher and the students.

Before I analyse the type of syllabus LK06 is I will give a brief description of it in the next section.

### 3.3 Presentation of the English syllabus in LK06, the Knowledge Promotion Curriculum in Norway

The Knowledge Promotion Curriculum was presented by the Norwegian Ministry for Education in 2006 after several rounds between policy makers, syllabus designers and teachers at schools. The Norwegian curriculum gives teachers complete autonomy how to enact the syllabuses in the classroom (Hopmann and Haft 1990a, cited by Sivesind and Bachmann, 2002, p. 31). This is an advantage but at the same time a disadvantage because teachers need to delimit the contents of the syllabus and this is not an easy task.

The English syllabus in the national curriculum has five parts as the table below shows.

**Table 2: Contents of the English LK06 syllabus**

1. The objective of the subject	2. Main subject areas	3. Teaching hours	4. Basic skills	5. Competence aims
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I will give a brief description of all the parts in the next subsections.

#### 3.3.1 Objectives of the subject

Considering that Norwegian is a language spoken by few people, Norwegian people need English as communicative aid both in education and working life abroad and in the country.

This syllabus makes clear in the general objective of the subject that components such as vocabulary, skills in phonology, grammar and text structure are essential in order to master this language. Moreover, it focuses also on strategies in listening, speaking, reading and writing and it refers to the importance of being aware of them in the learning process. By doing so, the acquisition of knowledge and skills will be easier for students. Main subject areas

### **3.3.2 Main subject areas**

There are three main subject areas divided into *language learning, communication and culture society and literature*. In the first area the syllabus requires students “to be able to assess their own language use, define their needs and select strategies in order to achieve the goals”. In the second, the syllabus presents abilities such as listening, reading, and writing as a means to achieving good communication. Nevertheless, the LK06 refers to communication strategies and knowledge and skills in using language components such as vocabulary and idiomatic structures, pronunciation, intonation, spelling, grammar and syntax of sentences and text will be necessary to achieve good results in the goals. Finally, the last area deals with goals related to social issues, literature and other cultural expressions that can be achieved through contact with different types of texts.

### **3.3.2 Teaching hours**

The syllabus explains that teaching periods have 60-minute units. Programmes for general studies in Vg1 have 140 teaching hours while Vocational education programmes in Vg1 have 84 teaching hours and 56 hours in Vg2.

### **3.3.4 Basic skills**

Five basic skills are considered in the syllabus. Students should “be able to express themselves written and orally, read in English with focus on reading skills and use mathematical competence to describe graphs, tables and statistics”. Last but not least, students should “be able to use digital tools and be critical of sources they use”.

### **3.3.5 Competence aims**

The syllabus refers to three areas of competence after the level Vg1 for programmes for general studies and level Vg2 for vocational education programs. These are *language learning, communication and culture, society and literature* and each of them comprises different objectives. Later, I will refer to objectives that are related to reading strategies.

In my next section I will examine what kind of syllabus the LK06 is in relation to Breen's syllabus types.

### **3.4 LK06: Type of syllabus and its organization**

The Norwegian syllabus in the subject of English may have traces of some of the syllabuses presented by Breen in section 3.2.

In my opinion the Norwegian syllabus is more task-oriented giving information about what the pupils are expected to be able to do in order to master the three main subject areas: *language learning, communication and culture society and literature*. In addition, this syllabus focuses on grammar content and pedagogy but does not specify activities. The syllabus also prioritizes the use of basic skills such as “being able to express oneself in writing and orally, to read English and use mathematics skills in English” and last but not least, “the active use of strategies”.

According to Breen (1987a), the formal syllabus enhances being linguistically correct in the use of the four skills. LK06 includes, as mentioned above, the four skills and introduces skills in mathematics and the use of digital tools. This syllabus is not concerned with correctness as the main goal of the use of skills and language competence but with “developing” them and “being aware of the learning process”. The syllabus does not provide tasks but leaves this to be decided by the teacher and the students. Similar examples can be found further in the other competence aims.

The Norwegian syllabus is influenced by the formal syllabus in the sense that it states what pupils need in order to master the English language. Pupils need to “develop vocabulary and skill in using language systems of English, namely phonology, grammar and text structure”. However, the syllabus does not present a list of tasks, as a task-based syllabus would do.

A formal syllabus focuses on being socially correct in language performance and it is skilled oriented but highlights fluency than more linguistic accuracy. It moves from what is simple in terms of form, structure or rules to what is complex. In this respect the Norwegian syllabus enhances “oral and written expression with subtleness, proper register, fluency, precision and coherence”. A functional syllabus moves from a general set of functions to more specific functions. This is not explained in detail in the Norwegian syllabus. The task-

based syllabus selects activities and tasks based on the students' need in the learning process. It seems to me that the English LK06 syllabus mentions different abilities in the three competence aims that the student is supposed to be able to do. However, it does not specify concrete tasks. Obviously focus is on the "pupils' need". What can be done in the classroom is left up to each teacher and group to decide. In this sense, this syllabus resembles a Process syllabus because "it does not provide a plan of what is to be achieved through teaching and learning". It assumes that the teacher and learners will decide what might be the most appropriate content for learning. In other words, this syllabus can be negotiated between teacher and learners in the classroom. It prioritises "classroom decision- making" (Breen, 1987b).

With regard to a process syllabus, it provides information about how things may be done in the classroom to achieve communication and learning giving a framework which enables teacher and learners to discuss the way they want to work with the contents. It assumes that the teacher and the learners together decide what might be the appropriate content. The result becomes a kind of study contract between the teacher and the learners (Breen, 1987b).

If the English syllabus LK06 provides all the freedom to decide how to work between teachers and pupils, why does not this syllabus seem to be achieving its teaching goals with regard to reading in English in Vg1? In my next section I will examine what the English LK06 syllabus presents in relation to reading and reading strategies.

### **3.5 Reading as a basic skill**

As noted above, the English LK06 syllabus also includes basic skills that are to be integrated in the competence objectives. The reason is because basic skills help students to develop the competence in the subject of English. There are five basic skills: *being able to express oneself in writing and orally, being able to read, having skills in mathematics and being able to use digital tools in English*. As far as reading is concerned, the syllabus refers to this skill as "a means to explore and reflect upon reading strategies with the gradual use of more demanding texts".



### 3.5.1 Requirements for reading and reading strategies

As was also mentioned, the competence aims after Vg1 in programmes for general studies are grouped into three areas: *language learning, communication and culture, society and literature*. In this section I will point out what it requires with regard to reading and reading strategies under these three aims and I will leave out what students are supposed to read since this is not the aim of my thesis.

#### Language learning

In this main area I find it relevant to mention “the use of digital tools and monolingual dictionaries as means of solving problems of knowledge or vocabulary”. In addition, focus on “general strategies” is included as a basic tool in learning English.

#### Communication

In this competence area I find several aims related to reading and to reading strategies. There are four competency aims that have to be taken into consideration that the pupils are to be able to do:

- Understand extended written and oral presentations on different personal, literary, interdisciplinary and social topics
- Extract essential information from spoken and written texts and discuss the author’s attitudes and point of view
- Select appropriate listening, speaking, reading and writing strategies adapted to the purpose, situation and genre
- Read formal and informal texts in various genres and with different purposes

Although these four points clearly refer to reading and reading strategies, they are interrelated with other skills and strategies. It is important for the teacher and the students to spend time when planning to give detailed consideration to what these aims cover. To finish with my listing, I believe that there are still two points that indirectly deal with reading and these are:

- Select and use content from different sources independently, critically and responsibly
- Use technical and mathematical information in communication

These two points probably add reading levels without being very specific but they leave them open to interpretation by the teacher. As noted by Ryder & Graves (2003, p. 12) the need for literacy in this 21<sup>st</sup> century is more demanding than in the previous century. Technology and organizational change and industry need more literate workers. In this respect, the levels of reading are more diversified and need to be represented in the syllabus.

### **3.5.2 What a syllabus requires with regard to reading and reading strategies**

According to Grabe (2009, pp. 331-332), a good reading curriculum needs to provide a general set of principles. These are extensive practice and exposure to print, interesting, varied, attractive, abundant and accessible reading resources, some degree of student choice in the reading sources, reading skills and strategies, lessons that provide activities that develop pre-, while- and after-reading strategies and good opportunities to experience comprehension success while reading. With the partial exception of naming concrete activities related to the different moments of the reading process, the English LK06 syllabus in Norway includes all these principles as part of the objectives of the subject (see section 3.1). However, Grabe (2009; p. 332) also adds, in his description of key components of a good reading curriculum, that “strategy instruction” must be a part of text comprehension instruction. It is interesting that the Norwegian English syllabus does not mention this at all. That may be the reason that most of the teachers interviewed in Faye-Schjøll’s study (2009) did not find it natural to include reading strategies as part of the reading instruction.

## **3.6 How syllabuses influence teaching**

According to Graves (2008, p. 149) “the curriculum involves planning what is to be taught/learned, implementing it and evaluating it”. In the same way other researchers Richards (2001) and Hall & Hewings (2001; both as cited in Graves, 2008, p. 149) came to the same conclusion that the curriculum involved more than planning. Implementation and evaluation of the curriculum was part of a curriculum in order to be conceived as “a coherent whole with a specific purpose”.

This means that the curriculum is more than a plan; it is the thoughts and intentions of policy makers (Sivesind and Bachmann, 2002) or other people concerned with the educational system (Jackson, 1992, p.21; cited in Graves, 2008, p. 149). In this respect, it is important to

mention Grave's questions about who guides the processes in the curriculum, who originates it, what the intentions are and where the curriculum is used. Depending on the level of participants in the curriculum decision making process we may find different answers.

There are four different domains in this process namely: "curriculum planning, specification of ends and means, programme implementation and classroom implementation". Each stage has different participants that make different products. Graves viewed the order of these stages in a linear fashion in a hierarchical top-down process. It started with syllabus designers, specialists, analysts, continued with material writers and teacher trainers and ended up with teachers and learners in the classroom. In this process each participant elaborated different products such as policy, syllabus, materials, training programme and teaching and learning acts (R.K. Johnson, 1989a, p. 13; as cited in Graves, 2008, p. 150).

Nevertheless, Graves questioned this linearity of the process and negated it by saying that this is not the way most curriculum development efforts unfold (Brown, 1995; as cited in Graves, 2008, p. 150). Graves stated that this linear process showed fundamental problems in the view of the curriculum and caused lack of coherence between the participants. As a matter of fact, each participant performs different curricular functions and uses different discourses and produces different curricular products. Therefore each group interprets the syllabus in its own way. To Grave, one fundamental problem was to put the classroom and its participants: teachers and learners as "recipients and implementers" of the received curriculum, instead of being "decision makers". Consequently, if the curriculum did not succeed in being implemented in the classroom, it was the teachers' fault (Snyder, Bolin & Zumwalt, 1992; as cited in Graves, 2008, p. 151). The result, as Graves pointed out, is that the educational authorities blame the teachers for not accepting curricular innovation and teachers complain that educational authorities do not know what the reality of the classroom is.

Sivesind and Bachmann (Hopmann: 1999a, cited in Sivesind and Bachmann, 2008, p. 27, my own translation) shared Graves' point of view in that there are different participants in the elaboration of the syllabus. Yet they preferred to use the term "discourses" and presented three types. First the political discourse which consists of policy makers, second the programmatic discourse composed of local schools, textbooks, and teacher courses and third the practical discourse which includes both teachers and students. Obviously, each category will understand the curriculum in different ways and it should not surprise us that problems might appear in understanding and using the curriculum.

In contrast to Graves, Sivesind and Bachmann argued that the curriculum only steers the process. Its function is to present which themes the curriculum does not need to take into account in school education. This affirmation may be to a certain extent quite challenging in its interpretation. Nevertheless, Sivesind and Bachmann agreed in that the curriculum is merely a public standard document that coordinates education. There are other secondary means to improve the syllabus content such as textbooks, didactical traditions, teacher courses (Sivesind and Bachmann, 2008, pp. 28-29).

As is known, the German and the Nordic traditions in didactics do not support including in a syllabus all the details concerning the course which it deals with. On the contrary, the syllabus is to give the teachers complete autonomy in their teaching decisions (Engelsen, 1990b; cited by Sivesind and Bachmann, 2002, p. 31). With the help of varying didactical theories the teacher can reflect about how to achieve the aims described in the syllabus in relation to the teaching material, situation and pupils. In other words, the application of the syllabus depends on the teachers' approaches, interpretation and didactic understanding as one of the results of the syllabus impact. To Sivesind and Bachmann (2002, p. 32) it is the teacher who determines how the syllabus's contents can be used in relation to the students. None of these researchers mentioned what role the students play in relation to the syllabus's impact.

Barnes (1976) and Eisner (1985, both cited in Graves, 2008, p. 152) added a new point of view of the main processes – planning, implementing and evaluating involved in the curriculum. Instead of using the term implementing they preferred the concept “enactment”. Snyder et al. (1992; cited by Graves: 2008, p. 152) defined it as “the educational experiences jointly created by students and teacher in the classroom”. Graves supported this idea of teaching and learning as processes in the classroom that are at the heart of education. She added that the classroom is more than a social context but an educational or curricular context. Therefore, it is important to do more research about a syllabus's impact among students. It is not only to make decisions on how the syllabus can affect the planning but also to find out how the syllabus is interpreted by students in order to get a better understanding of it by teachers and learners. Thus, my chapter analysis of the data will present Norwegian students' use of reading strategies in English at Vg1 level so that the results can throw more light on interpreting the goals that LK06 syllabus may want to achieve in reading strategies.

By asking them concrete questions, I believe that I will help students to describe different strategies they use or do not use.

### **3.7 Summary of the chapter**

My intention has been to start with analysing the terms “curriculum” and “syllabus” before describing the English LK06 syllabus so that it becomes clear what I refer to. Thereafter, the focus has been on defining more accurately what kind of syllabus the LK06 is. According to Breen’s four organizing principles (see section 3.1) the English LK06 follows a clear structure presenting traces of formal, functional, task-based and process syllabus. First, as opposed to the formal syllabus which enhances being linguistically correct in the use of the four skills; LK06 includes the four skills and introduces skills in mathematics and the use of digital tools. The main goal is not correctness but development of language competence through self-awareness in the learning process. Secondly, the LK06 English syllabus supports the functional syllabus in being skills oriented, socially appropriate linguistically as well as fluent. However it does not give any set of functions. Thirdly, this syllabus resembles a task-oriented syllables regarding what students are expected to be able to do but does not provide any lists of tasks. Finally, the syllabus is organized so that the contents can be discussed both by learners and the teacher as a main feature of a process syllabus.

Students and teachers are presented in this syllabus as decision makers in curricular issues but at the same time the English LK06 is a public standard document that serves as a guide for all the teachers in English in Vg1 in Norway. As a matter of fact, there are other means to improve the syllabus as Sivesind and Bachmann suggested (2008, pp. 28-29). Bearing in mind that the LK06 follows the main ideas of a humanistic curriculum in that its goals are related to ideals of personal growth, integrity and autonomy (McNeil, 2009, p.5) this is clearly reflected in what reading should achieve (see section 3.2); I believe that in order to increase coherence in how reading strategies are understood and used, I need to take the students into account in my research.

Thus in the next chapter, I will present what made me decide the kind of method I chose in my research and how data was collected.

# **4 The Method**

## **4.1 Introduction**

In the method chapter I will provide information about the research design that I have chosen. I will explain why I decided to use a quantitative approach. Then I will describe how I made my questionnaire and which variables I decided would be part of it. Next, I will move on to look at the procedures from the first pilot testing, registration of the project at the NSD (Norwegian Social Science Data Services) and finally the main survey. In this section there will be a brief presentation of the population and samples used in the survey. Before I analyze the data I have collected I will briefly discuss the validity of my survey.

## **4.2 Research Design**

The kind of research design that I have chosen in my thesis is the fixed design research. The first general feature is that before you start, you need to understand the field of research which in this case is reading strategies and skills. The next characteristic is that the fixed design needs to be piloted before it is used. This gives the researcher an opportunity to check the design and perhaps to improve the research items. The third feature is that its results can give the researcher information of group properties that can be generalized to further groups if the survey relies on internal and external validity. (Robson, 2002, pp. 96-99, 230-31).

### **4.2.1 Why quantitative research?**

It was clear for me from the beginning that I wanted to have a survey of pupils of English at the Vg1 level. Nevertheless, I was not sure what to ask them about, since the topic of my research, reading strategies, was quite extensive, and I needed to understand what the concept of reading strategies involved as well as how to translate it into good variables in my questionnaire. Consequently, I had to spend a long time in reading theory in order to find out good items that could be of interest and understood by this group. Finally, when I had understood the theory and I found inspiration for my items, I elaborated my first questionnaire. As mentioned in the previous section, a fixed design is highly theory-driven before you do the survey.

Then, as the second feature indicates I had to test the questionnaire to check that I had formulated correct items. All in all, I had two mini-pilot versions among pupils that gave me really good feedback in adding new items and changing some others. Not only did pupils help me in the pilot but also my thesis supervisor and other colleagues at work.

Obviously, at this stage I knew that I had to have a survey because of the length of the questionnaire and that the quantitative method was my choice. The population of my fixed research would be high schools in Oslo and the surroundings, the sample would comprise pupils of English at Vg1 level and the questionnaire would have variables transformed into items that could be measured and compared to cast more light on the pupils' use of reading strategies.

Since this is a quantitative research, I use the SPSS program (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) which helps me to interpret the data that I have collected

In short, a fixed design was the perfect research design for me. The theory gave me knowledge of what I wanted to do research in, the pilot-versions provided me with constructive feedback, self-confidence and motivation and the SPSS programme was a structured means of collecting the data and interpreting it in a relatively short period of time.

## **4.3 The Questionnaire**

### **4.3.1 Constructing the questionnaire**

A questionnaire can be filled out in three different manners: self-completion, face-to-face interview and telephone interview. The first consists of a questionnaire in which the respondents fill in the answers by themselves, and this type of questionnaire can be sent by post or mail. The second entails the interviewer asking the items in the presence of the respondent and also filling out the questionnaire. The third, as its name indicates, is administered by phone and in this type the interviewer asks the items and takes note of the answers (Robson, 2002, p. 236).

In this project, I decided to use the self-completion format. I wanted to have a questionnaire with closed items that the respondents only had to tick off. By using such kind of questionnaire, it would take less time to answer it with greater accuracy compared to a

questionnaire with open items in which they could express their opinion in their own words. Therefore, I could have many items but they had to be easy to understand. When this was clear in my mind, I decided that I had to be present in the classroom to do the survey in order to have complete control of the response situation and good quality of recorded responses. These last aspects are in Robson's opinion very poor if the questionnaire is just sent by post or mail. By being at the places, I believe that I could present the questionnaire by myself and reinforce the purpose of answering it. If there was any item while the pupils were doing it, I could also clarify matters. At the same time, I could make sure that each pupil was concentrated on his or her questionnaire without needing to ask their neighbour pupils about their opinion.

Having decided this, I started to think about the questions that I needed in order to answer the research question: the use of basic reading comprehension strategies in English in pupils in Vg1. In Robson's opinion (2002; p. 244-7) there are some components that need to be taken into consideration before elaborating the questionnaire: wording and design or lay-out. He mentions other factors but I do not consider it important to mention them here since they are related to questionnaires that are sent by post or mail.

## **Wording**

As mentioned above, the respondents need to understand the items, which is why wording is so important. In my case, the target group is teenagers and for this reason I have selected three basic criteria in wording: simple language, good sentence structure and short items that mean the same to all the respondents (Vaus, 1991, p. 83-6; cited in Robson, 2002, p. 245-6). Moreover, the fixed-set of responses in the questionnaire has to be accurate with all the possible ranging options and mutually exclusive so that only one response is possible.

Having presented the wording I will move on to say a few words about the lay-out and design of my questionnaire in the next section.

## **Lay-out and Design**

Due to reasons of low cost, my questionnaire has not coloured pages that would better clarify the structure. Instead I have used headlines for each section of items and these are highlighted in bold and bigger letter format. Each item has a set of responses that the pupil can tick off.



Spacing and clear presentation have been also important (Robson, 2002, pp. 249, 256). The questionnaire, included in Appendix A, starts with items about the pupil's background (Items 1-5), and then it is followed by items about their English reading habits at home and at school (Items 6-11) and it ends up with items related to reading strategies on their own ( Items 12-34) and in the classroom ( Items 35-50). From item 12 to item 50 I have used a numerical scale known as the Likert scale and its main feature is that respondents indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statement (de Vaus, 2002, p. 102). I have single items and the levels of agreement cover from "rarely" to "often" and it is a five set of responses. To make clearer my interpretation of the findings, the grades between "rarely" and "often" will be interpreted as "quite rarely" "sometimes" and "quite often". The respondent is to tick the alternative that suits him or he best. All in all, the questionnaire has fifty items. In the next section, I will present the population, samples and variables I have chosen and the sources that have inspired me.

### **4.3.2 Population, samples and variables**

This section starts with a brief definition of the concepts that I will deal with. According to Robson (2002, p. 260) population refers in a general sense to all cases and is not limited to people used in a general sense while a sample is a selection of population. Variables, as mentioned above, are properties or characteristics of a person, thing or group or situation that can be measured in some way and compared to each other and they may vary. In other words, the reference population in this research will be high school pupils of the Vg1 level.

### **Samples**

Robson (2002, pp. 262-5) distinguished between two types of samples: probability samples and non-probability samples. As the terms indicate, the first type refers to samples where the probability of the selection of each respondent is known, while the second one will refer to an unknown selection of respondents.

The first group, depending on the type of selection the researcher chooses, can have different samples. Briefly, if the choice is made by chance, using a lottery method, random number tables or a computer, the sample will be called simple random sampling. On the other hand, if the choice follows a system such as choosing every nth person this will be a systematic sampling. Lastly, if the sample involves dividing the population into a number of

groups or strata (males, females, different ethnic groups), then it will be a stratified random sampling. There are still two more types of samples, cluster sampling and multistage sampling, which are mainly used when generating a geographically concentrated sampling. The first one is concerned with involving populations in units or clusters e.g. schoolchildren and the second is an extension of the first in the sense that it involves selecting the sample in stages, i.e. taking samples from samples.

The second group, as Robson (2002, p. 264-6) stated, is less complicated to set up and is acceptable if there is no need to make a statistical generalization of any population. They can also be used to pilot a survey. The five samples mostly used in this category are quota sampling, dimensional sampling, convenience sampling, purposive sampling and snowball sampling. I will mention a few characteristics of each category so that it will be easier to understand which group my own sample represents later on. Quota sampling is used when the principle of selection is to obtain representatives of various elements of the population. Robson gives the following example to illustrate it, "if socio-economic status were considered of importance, then categories such as professional, managers and employers/intermediate and junior non-manual/skilled manual/semiskilled manual/unskilled manual might be used" (Robson, 2002, p. 264). The next category, dimensional sampling, is an extension of the previous one and tries to cover at least one representative of every possible combination. The third category is called convenience sampling and as its name indicates you choose the nearest and most convenient persons to act as respondents. The fourth group follows a purposive principle of selection which means that the researcher's judgement has been considered as typicality or interest. It is commonly used within flexible designs. The last is snowball sampling and here the researcher identifies one or more individuals from the population of interest but allows these persons to identify other members and so on. This sampling is mainly used when the members of the population belong to a clandestine group.

My samples belong to non-probability samples in the sense that my intention is not to generalize to any population but cast light on the use of reading strategies employed by pupils in English Vg1. I consider this survey as a pilot survey. Furthermore, this is a purposive sample with an element of convenience because I have chosen the schools nearest to where I work and convenient groups of pupils whose teachers were recommended or that I knew in advance. Although, I wanted to create a stratified random sampling by representing different

types of schools in the area, it had to be mentioned that one school of high interest did not want to take part in the survey. This means that not all kinds of schools are represented in the samples.

That being said, I will continue with the third part of this section which is the choice of variables in my study and the sources I have used in my choice.

## **Variables**

Variables are basically divided into three categories: nominal variables (e.g. gender), interval variables (e.g. year of birth) and ordinal variables (e.g. respondents' attitude to research items contained in the questionnaire). To de Vaus (2002, p. 22), "a variable is a characteristic that has more than one category or value." He exemplifies it, by giving sex as a variable with two categories: male or female. In comparison, age is a variable with many different categories. Thus, a variable is a characteristic on which cases can differ from one another. De Vaus distinguishes between three types of variables: dependent, independent and intervening variables. I will only use the first terms of categorizing variables to make the interpretation of my variables and data analysis clearer. I support de Vaus (2002, p. 163) in that "preparing variables for analysis is one of the most time-consuming parts of data analysis. Once they are found and probably modified after pilot testing, data analysis can be remarkably simple and quick".

Finding the appropriate variables was time-consuming and I had to think about my research question and original concepts to see if I could develop them. Moreover, since the data must be organised in such a way that these concepts can be measured for the final analysis (de Vaus, 2002, p. 163), I decided to analyse examples of questionnaires done in this topic. Therefore, my questionnaire is based basically on five main sources: Hellekjær (2009), Campbell & Campbell (2009), Paris et al. (1996, as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 108), cf. Block & Pressley, 2002a; Duke & Pearson, 2002, p. 235; Guthrie, Wigfield, & Perencevich, 2004b; Pressley, 2002b; Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002, as cited in Grabe, 2009, p.218 and Roe's summary chart (2008, p. 88). Although my questionnaire is fairly extensive, the items are classified under four headings.

In the next section, I will describe the procedures in this quantitative study. There will be a description of the pilot versions of the questionnaire, a brief presentation of the population and the samples and how the survey was carried out.

## **4.4 The Procedures**

### **4.4.1 Pilot testing of the Questionnaire**

Having developed a first draft of the questionnaire, but not yet finished with the layout, I began the exploratory phase, as mentioned above. In this phase I started by giving the questionnaire to a colleague who reviewed the items to see if they were correctly formulated. Then, I sent it to my thesis supervisor who immediately thought that this could be a first draft, but layout and variables had to be considered before I could continue with a pilot test. It took me several rounds with the order of the items and their headlines until I had the last draft before the questionnaire could be piloted. Then, I decided to use my own pupils to give me feedback by answering it anonymously. I chose, to begin with, pupils at Vg2 level who I thought were better qualified as readers because of their school experience. Some few changes had to be made in relation to some vocabulary which was not understandable for them. The order of some items had to be changed the better to integrate them under the headings. These changes were made immediately and the next day, I piloted the questionnaire in a Vg1 class. I was surprised that most of them liked the items and reflected on the use of some of the reading strategies in their English lessons. This group had problems only with understanding some words such as paragraph and reading quickly. To the first word, they suggested having the Norwegian word “avsnitt” in parenthesis as well and to the second group of words, the English word “skimming” because they were used to it. Therefore, I added the Norwegian word “avsnitt” and “skimming”. After that, I send this version to my thesis supervisor and after he approved it, I sent it to NSD (Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS) in order to get the questionnaire approved and finally to register the project in their data base.

The information I wrote in the form sent to NSD was that around 150 of pupils were to answer a questionnaire about reading strategies in English Vg1. The first contact with pupils was going to be via school and that I would distribute the questionnaire myself. The items used were not supposed to identify directly any of the pupils. However, I had thought to ask

their parents for consent if it was necessary. I enclosed an information letter for parents in which I presented myself, my supervisor, the project and that the questionnaire was anonymous. A copy of the questionnaire was attached in the mail as well. After four weeks, I got the final reply from NSD approving my questionnaire and letting me know that pupils who were sixteen years old or above, did not need any permission from their parents. They could consent by themselves by answering the questionnaire (see Appendix 2). Nevertheless, I had to hand out an information letter to the pupils. More precisely, instead of writing that the questionnaire was anonymous, I had to say that all the information obtained in the questionnaire had to be anonymous in my publication. In addition, I had to inform the pupils when the project would end and that all the personal information would be deleted (see Appendix 3).

#### **4.4.2 Brief presentation of population (schools) and samples (pupils) and main survey**

As mentioned above, the population chosen for this study are high-schools in Oslo and the surroundings and the samples different classes of English in Vg1 in general studies and vocational studies, publicly and privately financed. My sampling has a mixture of purposive sampling and convenience sampling.

My intention was to obtain representatives of skilled readers and weak readers from different schools; so I thought about some schools where I knew some English teachers, my supervisor gave further tips of other English teachers that I could contact and then I tried to make appointments with schools where I did not know any English teachers in advance. In sum, I had eight schools as samples waiting for my visit before NSD sent its approval. However, right after NSD reply, one school decided not to take part due to lack of time to be finished with the course book and the proximity of the spring exam. They believed that my visit would interrupt the teachers' planning and pupils' time to revise contents. However, to my surprise teachers mentioned that answering the questionnaire would take longer time for their pupils than I had estimated. This was a relative difficult issue and pupils needed time to be aware of what they had to answer. Consequently, to take part in the survey was not of interest. For this reason, I missed one school that from my knowledge and from the previous comments had pupils who were under the average of good readers. Another example of avoiding similar pupils taking part in the survey also occurred at another school. Therefore, I

have to admit that my sampling does not represent readers that struggle with reading. There might be some at the other schools, but the possibility is not very high.

As to convenience sampling, I have selected schools that are close to where I live and work. The reason has been that I see this survey as a kind of pilot survey and I do not want to run the risk of doing a big survey as a Master student. Moreover, as mentioned before, I wanted to have done this survey within an estimated amount of time as Robson suggested (2002, p. 229) and which I considered necessary for me and my family situation.

Having presented the types of samples that take part in the survey, I would like to mention that all the teachers I contacted were willing to participate, with the exception of the groups I mentioned before. Although appointments were changed due to longer waiting time for NSD's reply, they tried to put me in their schedule.

Teachers and I communicated by sms text on the mobile phone in the beginning but at the end the contact was by mail. I enclosed an information letter to pupils, parents, English teachers and school principals (see Appendix 3 and 4). The appointments were by mail and confirmed by sms the day before I should come.

I would like to say that my visit to schools has been one of my most interesting experiences as a teacher and as researcher. Both pupils and teachers received me with enthusiasm and respect. Before they answered the questionnaire I presented myself and my project as well as the part of the information letter dealing with pupils' anonymity and the date which my research would end. I asked them to answer the questionnaire individually and should there be anything unclear, they had to raise their hands so that I could come and help them. In general, there were not many questions and sometimes I felt they wanted to ask me because they may like to talk to me. I could see at once that they were willing to participate in the questionnaire and took it seriously. Answering the questionnaire took twenty minutes and when they finished, each pupil got a copy of the information letter (see Appendix 3) and I thanked them for taking part in the survey.

## 4.5 Validity and reliability

According to de Vaus, (2002, p. 53) “a valid measure is one which measures what it is intended to measure”. He adds that the validity of a measure depends on how we have defined the concept it is designed to measure and he concludes with saying that, “There are three basic ways to assess validity. None of them are entirely satisfactory but they are the best we have”.

The first is *criterion validity* which de Vaus describes as “an approach in which we compare how people answered our new measure of a concept, with existing, well-accepted measures of the concept. If their answers on both the new and the established measure are highly correlated this is to mean that the new measure is valid” (de Vaus, 2002, p. 53).

The next one is called *content validity* and in Vaus’ words this approach items whether “the indicators measure the different aspects of the concept” (de Vaus, p. 54). In his view, this depends on how well we define the concept it is designed to test. In other words, are my items in the questionnaire related to the research items?

The third type is *construct validity*, and “this approach evaluates a measure by how well the measure conforms to theoretical expectations” (de Vaus, 2002, p. 54).

In order to give a clearer picture of the concept of validity I find it necessary to consult other sources. Robson (2002, p. 100) claimed that validity and generalizability are two important issues in fixed design research. As he described, “validity from a realistic perspective refers to the accuracy of a result and refers to whether the results represent the real state of affairs”. To Robson generalizability indicated whether the results of the survey can be applicable in other contexts, situations or times, or to persons other than those directly involved. Generalizability and external validity (Campbell and Stanley, 1993; as cited in Robson, 2002, p. 107) refer to the same.

On the other hand, according to de Vaus (2002, p. 52), “a reliable measurement is one where we obtain the same result on repeated occasions. If people answer a item the same way on repeated occasions then it is reliable”. Furthermore, there are three aspects of reliability to be considered: wording, coding and testing. First, an item may be unreliable due to bad wording since the item is understood differently by each respondent. Second a source of error can occur during coding if different coders might code the same response differently. Third, testing reliability occurs when the same samples are questioned again some weeks later in

order to find the correlation between the answers on both occasions. If the correlation is high, then we assume that the items or questions are reliable.

Now that I have given this brief information about validity and reliability, the items for me to answer here would be: To what extent does my survey have external validity or generalizability? Are my pupils in English Vg1 representative of other pupils of the same level in Norway? Do my items have content and construct validity? And, do my items measure the concepts of my theory? Are the findings reliable?

As to the first question, I believe that most of the pupils in the survey belong to overall good readers since I had to leave one school and one class in another school because their teachers did not consider it appropriate to participate in the survey due to different reasons: lack of time to finish the goals of the syllabus before exams, lack of interest of some pupils and the possibility of taking too long to answer the questionnaire in English since this was difficult topic. Therefore, external validity or generalizability is a problem and I cannot generalize my findings. In addition, the low number of respondents 143, I would argue that this survey has to be looked upon pilot survey that can give us information about the issue, but can not be used to generalize about the use of reading strategies of all English pupils at Vg1 in Norway from my survey.

On the other hand, internal validity is not a threat in this survey because the research items have been cautiously tested via the pilot test and it seems that the items are comprehensible for pupils at this level. I am aware that I did not write on the questionnaire that reading strategies that pupils are asked about are basic comprehension strategies (Paris et al., 1996; as cited in Hudson, 2007; cf. Block & Pressley, 2002a; Duke & Pearson, 2002, 235; Guthrie, Wigfield, & Perencevich, 2004b; Pressley, 2002b, Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002, as cited in Grabe, 2009, p.218 ). I decided not to include this clarification to avoid pupils thinking about different texts or making wording more complicated for them. Since I was present in the classroom, I knew that I could clarify pupils anything they doubted. Lastly, as to the third item, whether the findings are reliable; in this respect, there are three aspects to be considered: wording, error in coding and testing. I believe that the wording of my variables is clear. The next aspect is error. In this case I have made an error in coding regarding grades. In order to ensure anonymity for the respondents I have avoided including grade 7 for the school that has the international English studies. Although no pupil had achieved this grade in the first term, I believe that their other grades slightly differ from the public grades used in the



Norwegian public school. Finally, testing again the same samples some weeks later could have helped to find whether the answers on both occasions would have been the same and if so, the items would have been more reliable.

I also have to admit that no pupils had achieved this grade in the first term. And the last observation I want to mention is that item 8 which investigates how many books pupils have in their library, has shown clearly that most of the respondents do not know where the library is and I did not have that in the required answer in the questionnaire.

All in all, my sample is a mixture of convenience sampling with a purposive element in which seven schools take part in the survey. The number of respondents is 143 and I believe that the results will give me a useful picture of how reading strategies are used among English Vg1 pupils. This survey can provide us with useful information about the use of reading strategies among some groups of English Vg1 but it is, of course, not representative of all the pupils in English at Vg1 in Norway.

# **5 Analysis of the data**

## **5.1 Overview of the chapter**

This chapter presents the findings from my data analysis. The chapter starts by presenting the sample I have used in my study in further detail (Items 1-5). Then, I will explore and interpret data in the following order: reading habits (Items 6-11), reading strategies at home (Items 12-34) and classroom reading (Items 35-50). Lastly, I will comment the strengths and weaknesses of the questionnaire.

There will be two types of analysis of the data: exploratory and confirmatory. Robson (2002, p. 399) defined the first as a type of analysis where the main aim is to explore data and find out what they tell you. On the other hand, confirmatory analysis attempts to establish whether you have actually got what you expected to find. In the following I carry out an exploratory analysis.

## **5.2 More about the samples**

My samples comprise data from seven different schools located in Oslo and the surroundings areas. The respondents were pupils of English at Vg1 level, including both general studies and vocational studies. In total, there were 143 pupils that took part in the survey and, the majority of the respondents were general studies pupils. The following table shows the number and the percentage of respondents from the different schools and branches.

**Table 3: Schools and pupils in general studies and vocational studies in this survey. N=143.**

<b>Schools</b>	<b>Respondents</b>	<b>General studies</b>	<b>Vocational studies</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>20 (14%)</b>	<b>20 (14%)</b>	
<b>2</b>	<b>15 (10%)</b>	<b>15 (11%)</b>	
<b>3</b>	<b>22 (15%)</b>	<b>22 (16%)</b>	
<b>4</b>	<b>14 (10%)</b>	<b>14 (10%)</b>	
<b>5</b>	<b>23 (16%)</b>	<b>23 (16%)</b>	
<b>6</b>	<b>27 (19%)</b>		<b>27 (19%)</b>
<b>7</b>	<b>9 (6%)</b> <b>13 (9%)</b>	<b>13 (9%)</b>	<b>9 (6%)</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>143 (100%)</b>	<b>107 (75%)</b>	<b>36 (25%)</b>

As table 3 shows, 107 (76%) of the respondents belonged to the general studies branch while 36 (25%) were in vocational studies. By gender, there were 80 females (56%) and 63 males (44%) out of 143 respondents. With regard to age, respondents were divided into four categories: 72 pupils (52%) out of 143 were 16 years old, 45 pupils (32%) were 17 years old and 22 pupils (16%) were 18 years old or above this age.

As far as grades are concerned, I have run a cross tabulation analysis to find out more exactly which gender obtained the best grades. As table 4 shows, there were as many males as females with a failing grade but the number is quite low; only four pupils got grade one in the first semester. Surprisingly, two pupils belonged to general studies and the other two to vocational studies. Otherwise, it is clear that grade 4 was the mean grade, in other words the average grade for both males and females.

**Table 4: Cross tabulation between item 1 Gender and item 2 Grade**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>English grade at term 1 (Cross tabulation)</b>						<b>Total</b>
	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	
<b>Male</b>	2	4	12	28	13	4	<b>63</b>
<b>Female</b>	2	1	14	29	24	9	<b>79</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>142</b>
<b>Missing</b>							<b>1</b>

With regard to first language, 114 pupils (80%) out of 143 had Norwegian as their first language, while the rest of the pupils had either English or other languages, 27 pupils (19%) with other language compared to only 2 pupils (2%) that had English as their first language. This indicates that different ethnic groups were represented in my survey, and as is well known Oslo schools have pupils whose first language is not Norwegian in spite of living in Norway. Of these 20 pupils (14%) out of 143 that spoke only their mother tongue at home while 14 pupils (14%) used both Norwegian and other languages at home.

In the next section I will analyse data related to pupils' reading habits at school and at home, which will give us the first background related to reading in the survey.

## **5.3 Reading habits**

The items about reading habits (Items 6-11) can give us additional background information about the respondents, and it may be interesting to compare some of these habits with the pupils' general background presented in the previous section. However, before I start the analysis, it is important to mention that items 8 and 10, which are related to English books in the school library and at home, caused some reaction among the pupils. Interestingly, many were unsure about where the library was at school. As a matter of fact, at one school the library was under renovation while at the other schools it was obvious that the library was not very much visited because pupils did not even know where it was located and if there were any English books in it. Therefore, I do not consider using this item in subsequent analyses.

As mentioned in the introduction (section 1.5), Faye-Schjøll (2009, p. 84) stated that pupils mostly used textbooks and in some cases they read a novel. In my survey, 77 pupils (54%) have read one book in the beginning of term 2. That means that half of the pupils had already read one novel and they may read several novels in term 2 since there were some months left until term two was finished. This is quite positive in the sense that the amount of reading had increased compared to Faye-Schjøll's study. In addition, there were 21 pupils (15%) that had read two novels; it is even more interesting to see that 22 pupils (16%) had read three novels. In contrast, while 10 pupils (7%) had read four or more novels, there remained 12 pupils (9%) who had not read a single book. The 12 pupils belonged to different schools.

The next question I am concerned with is whether there is any relationship between reading at home and at school has any relationship. This is possible to find out if I correlate these variables.

**Table 5: Correlations between item 7 How often do you read English magazines or newspapers at school? and item 9 How often do you read English books at home?**

		Item 7 How often do you read English magazines or newspapers at school	Item 9 Read English books or magazines at home
Item 7 How often do you read English magazines or newspapers at school	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.458**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	142.000	142
Item 9 Read English books or magazines at home	Pearson Correlation	.458**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	142	143.000

\*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As can be seen from table 5, there is a correlation coefficient  $r = .46$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $N = 142$ , which shows a moderately high and significant correlation. In other words, the more pupils read at school, the more they read at home, or vice versa.

Finally, a high number of pupils, 94 (67%), read everyday on the internet. Moreover, 24 pupils (17%) read every week on the internet.

## 5.4 Reading strategies used at home

This part of the questionnaire has different response alternatives compared with those for the background items and reading habits, in the sense that I have introduced numerical rating scales measuring respondents' attitudes. I have single Items and the levels of agreement cover from "rarely" to "often" and it is a five set of responses. To make clearer my interpretation of the findings, the grades between "rarely" and "often" will be interpreted as "quite rarely",

“sometimes” and “quite often”. The respondent is to tick the alternative that suits him or her best.

Having clarified the response set, I will give a brief overview of how I have divided reading strategies when pupils read on their own. The heading is *reading strategies at home* in order to show contrast with reading strategies used in the classroom. However, I believe that some pupils read not only at home but also maybe at school, in the library or at a friend’s place. The question is that they read outside the English lesson and without the teacher’s presence.

I have to admit that in this part of the questionnaire when I analyse the data I see a kind of weakness because I do not specify in the questionnaire that I deal with basic reading comprehension strategies (Paris et al., 1996; as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 108; cf. Block & Pressley, 2002a; Duke & Pearson, 2002, 235; Guthrie, Wigfield, & Perencevich, 2004b; Pressley, 2002b, Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002; as cited in Grabe, 2009, p.218). Although I had the two pilot tests, none of the pupils asked about this. My aim was to focus on reading in general and have a questionnaire understandable for these young pupils. I am aware that reading strategy use differs depending on the type of text. As mentioned before (section 2.3.1), different texts provide different text markers to help the reader to develop comprehension (Roe, 2008, p. 47; my own translation) and depending on whether the text is narrative or expository the reader creates different expectations (Grabe, 2009, pp. 249-250; Hudson, 2007, p. 179). In any case my questionnaire focuses on basic reading comprehension strategies. I even include an item about pupils’ text-structure awareness (Item 13) which is one of the major reading comprehension strategies. For this reason, I consider important to analyse the results of the use of text-structure awareness independently in my questionnaire. In addition, I will run a cross tabulation analysis between text-structure awareness (Item 13) and English grades in the first term (Item3).

### **Item 13: I notice at once what kind of text/ genre it is**

Generally, respondents answered that they noticed often or quite often what kind of text / genre they were reading. These two attitudes accounted for as many as 83 respondents (58%) and there were only 12 respondents (9%) that rarely did it. Moreover, 19 respondents (13%) used it quite rarely and even 27 (19%) did so sometimes.

**Table 6: Cross tabulation between Item 3 English grade at term 1 and Item 13 I noticed at once what kind of text/genre it is.**

<b>Cross tabulation: Item 3 English grade at term 1</b>							
<b>Item 13 I noticed at once what kind of text / genre it is</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	
<b>Rarely</b>	0	0	1	6	3	2	<b>12</b>
<b>2</b>	3	1	6	6	3	0	<b>19</b>
<b>3</b>	0	2	4	14	5	2	<b>27</b>
<b>4</b>	0	0	10	15	9	2	<b>36</b>
<b>Often</b>	1	2	5	15	16	7	<b>13</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>140</b>
<b>Missing</b>							<b>3</b>

The cross tabulation analysis above in table 6, shows partially that the higher the grade is the more pupils think about text-structure awareness, this because there were still pupils in grade 4, 5 and 6 that used this strategy rarely or quite rarely. To find out whether there was any consistency in the responses I ran a correlation between these variables.

**Table 7: Correlations between item 1 English Grade at Term 1 and item 13 Notice the type of text/genre at once. N=140.**

		<b>Item 3 English grade at term 1</b>	<b>Item 13 Notice the type of text/genre</b>
<b>Item 3 English grade at term 1</b>	<b>Pearson Correlation</b>	<b>1.000</b>	<b>.163</b>
	<b>Sig. (2-tailed)</b>		<b>.054</b>
	<b>N</b>	<b>142.000</b>	<b>140</b>
<b>Item 13 Notice the type of text/genre</b>	<b>Pearson Correlation</b>	<b>.163</b>	<b>1.000</b>
	<b>Sig. (2-tailed)</b>	<b>.054</b>	
	<b>N</b>	<b>140</b>	<b>141.000</b>

From table 7 it can be seen that the correlation coefficient  $r=.16$ ,  $p<.05$ ,  $N= 140$ , is low. Therefore, I do not consider it relevant to investigate further the relationship between these variables any further. After this clarification, I will analyse results by dividing the set of strategies in this section in three categories as mentioned in the chapter's overview.

### 5.4.1 Before reading

There is evidence that thinking about the topic in a text before reading (Item 12) is important for pupils who are exposed to new information everyday. As a matter of fact, Hellekjær (2008, p. 17 & 2009, pp. 199, 209) analysed different items about exposure to English in his Questionnaire, and his studies confirmed that a large number of pupils read extensively due to internet. The main reason for using this reading strategy (Item 12) is that pupils have to integrate the new information into their previous knowledge in order to create new understanding and check their beliefs or theories needed (Campbell & Campbell, 2009, p.9) In this respect, acquiring this skill is useful not only in reading in the L2 but also in the L1. Therefore, Item 12 asks pupils about how much time they spend thinking about the topic when they read on their own. The results were not very inspiring since more than a quarter of the pupils 45, (32%), thought about it rarely while only 8, (6%), did so often. Even a quarter 33 (23.4%) thought quite rarely but yet another quarter, 36 (26%), chose sometimes, while the rest 19 (14%) answered quite often. The next Item is which kind of pupil thought most about the topic before reading. In order to examine the relationship between grades and the use among pupils in the different grades I will run a cross tabulation analysis.

**Table 8: Cross tabulation between Item 3 English grade at term 1 and Item 12 I spend time thinking about the topic.**

<b>Cross tabulation:</b>		<b>English grade at term 1</b>					
<b>Spend time thinking about the topic</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	
<b>Rarely</b>	0	3	8	19	9	5	<b>44</b>
<b>2</b>	1	0	7	14	10	1	<b>33</b>
<b>3</b>	1	1	7	12	11	4	<b>36</b>
<b>4</b>	0	0	3	10	4	2	<b>19</b>
<b>Often</b>	2	1	1	1	2	1	<b>8</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>140</b>
<b>Missing</b>							<b>3</b>



As can be seen from table 6 above, the lower and the higher the grades were, the fewer pupils thought about the topic when reading. This can be either an indicator of weak pupils not having practised this strategy enough or strong pupils that did not notice that they did so because this strategy had turned into a skill. Otherwise, pupils who had grades 3, 4 or 5 ranked between quite rarely, sometimes and quite often. This can show that pupils having these grades were more aware of the use this reading strategy compared to the higher and lowest grades.

### **5.4.2 While reading**

This section includes a large number of Items related to reading strategies used while reading a text (Items 15-29). It has to be pointed out that there is also a subgroup of reading strategies which deals with unknown words (Items 24-29). Some of the strategies are clearly reading strategies that have to be practised in reading to learn because they will help pupils to learn in different ways (Roe, 2008, p. 84, my own translation). These are underlining words, writing key words, taking notes, summarizing in the notebook and comparing summary with text read (Items 18-20; Items 22-23). In the following table, I will describe which reading strategies are most practised in while reading and how pupils tackle unknown words in the text.

In the first place, assuming that good readers identify immediately with the text, text type and genre, and have decided what they know about the topic and what they want to gain from reading the text, it can be useful to discover the processes followed while he or she reads (Hudson, 2007, p.108). Therefore I will analyse the frequency of use of three initial strategies while reading: skimming (Item 15), reading in detail (Item 16) and reading the text a second time( Item 17).

**Table 9: : Frequencies of Item 15 Skimming, Item 16 Read the text in detail and Item 17 Read the text a 2nd time.**

	<b>Item 15 skimming</b>	<b>Item 16 Read the text in detail</b>	<b>Item 17 Read the text 2<sup>nd</sup> time</b>
<b>Rarely</b>	33 (24%)	6 (4%)	23 (16%)
<b>2</b>	42 (30%)	19 (14%)	33 (24%)
<b>3</b>	35 (25%)	29 (21%)	48 (34%)
<b>4</b>	22 (16%)	45 (32%)	23 (16%)
<b>Often</b>	9 (7%)	42 (30%)	14 (10%)
<b>Total</b>	141 (99%)	141 (99%)	141 (99%)
<b>Missing</b>	2	2	2

From table 9, it can be concluded that reading in detail accounted more than 60% of pupils' reading since 42 respondents (30%) and 45 (32%) practised it often, or quite often. This supported the results of the use of this reading strategy in a previous study among university students (Hellekjær, 2008, p. 13). There is still too much focus on careful reading (UrItemuhart, S. & Weir, C., 1998, p. 103, also mentioned in Hellekjær, 2008, p. 13, Hellekjær, 2009, p. 202). Good readers are more selective in what they read and are known to ignore *unfamiliar words* which I call in my questionnaire *unknown words* (Hellekjær, 2008, p. 4). As we can see from table 9, skimming (Item 15) was less used than reading in detail (Item 16). The results showed that only 31 (23%) respondents practised this reading strategy quite often and often. In addition, reading the text a second time (Item 17) was rarely or quite rarely practised by 56 (40%) of the respondents. This proved the need to develop these strategies more in order to help pupils to adjust them in their own reading (Hellekjær, 2009, p. 211).

The next group of strategies that I want to analyse is reading strategies related with writing summaries (Items 18-23). Since there are many strategies in this group I will show frequencies of four in order to get an average picture of their use. I will not take into account item 18, *underlining words* since books belong to the school nowadays and pupils are not allowed to write on them. Then item 19, *write key words when reading*, and item 20, *take notes when reading*, can rather be interpreted as similar reading strategies, therefore I will choose only item 20.

**Table 10: Frequencies of Item 20 Takes notes when reading, Item 21 Summarize in my mind, Item 22 Summarize in my notebook and Item 23 Compare the summary with the text.**

	Item 20 Take notes when reading	Item 21 Summarize in my mind	Item 22 Summarize in my notebook	Item 23 Compare the summary with the text
<b>Rarely</b>	43 (30%)	8 (6%)	54 (38%)	57 (40%)
<b>2</b>	44 (31%)	23 (16%)	41 (29%)	44 (31%)
<b>3</b>	34 (24%)	33 (23%)	30 (21%)	23 (16%)
<b>4</b>	16 (11%)	41 (29%)	10 (7%)	9 (6%)
<b>Often</b>	5 (4%)	37 (26%)	8 (6%)	10 (7%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>143 (100%)</b>	<b>142 (99%)</b>	<b>143 (100%)</b>	<b>143 (100%)</b>
<b>Missing</b>		<b>1</b>		

According to table 10, Item 21 *summarizing in the mind* is the most practised of the four strategies giving a result of 37 respondents (26.1%) using it often and 41 respondents (28.9%) quite often. Options 3 (sometimes) and 2 (quite rarely) together have also a large number of pupils 56 (39%) while only 8 respondents (6%) practised it rarely. It seemed that strategies involving writing were less practised as can be seen in Items 20, 22 and 23 for options 1 (rarely) and 2 (quite rarely). In order to find out whether there is a strong relationship between these variables and grades, I will correlate them.

**Table 11: Correlation between Item 3 Grades in English in 1st term and Item 20 taking notes when reading.**

		Item 3 English grade at term 1	Item 20 Take notes when reading
Item 3 English grade at term 1	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.087
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.304
	N	142.000	142
Item 20 Take notes when reading	Pearson Correlation	.087	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.304	
	N	142	143.000

The results in table 11 show a low correlation coefficient  $r=0.087$ ,  $p<.01$ ,  $N=143$ , indicating a weak or non existence relationship between these variables. The next table shows the

correlation between Item 3 *Grades in English in the 1<sup>st</sup> term* and Item 21 *I summarize what I have read in my mind*.

**Table 12: Correlation between Item 3 Grades in English in the 1st term and Item 21 I summarize what I have read in my mind.**

		Item 3 English grade at term 1	Item 21 Summarize in my mind
Item 3 English grade at term 1	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.062
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.468
	N	142.000	141
Item 21 Summarize in my mind	Pearson Correlation	.062	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.468	
	N	141	142.000

As can be seen from table 12, the correlation coefficient is lower  $r=0.062$ ,  $p<.05$ ,  $N=142$  compared to table 9. This confirms an almost non existent relationship between these variables. I will try one correlation more between Item 3 *Grades in English in the 1<sup>st</sup> term* and Item 22 *I summarize what I have read in my notebook* and see what the results show.

**Table 13: Correlation between Item 3 Grades in English in the 1st term and Item 22 I summarize what I have read in my notebook.**

		Item 3 English grade at term 1	Item 22 Summarize in my notebook
Item 3 English grade at term 1	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.067
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.425
	N	142.000	142
Item 22 Summarize in my notebook	Pearson Correlation	.067	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.425	
	N	142	143.000

According to table 13, the correlation coefficient  $r = 0.067$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $N = 142$  is low as in the previous correlation, therefore, not significant. To sum up, the analysis above shows that there is little indication of a relationship between grades and how much pupils practise these strategies. On the other hand, I have run also correlations between Item 11 *Reading in the internet* and Item 3 *English grades at term1*, the results, nevertheless, indicate that the correlation coefficient is very moderate, to be more accurate;  $r = .32$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $N = 140$ .

To finish with within this category of reading strategies, I have run correlations between them Items 20, 21, 22 and 9 *Reading books or magazines at home* but all the correlation coefficients are below 0.3, but I consider, to a certain extent, worth commenting two which are between 0.1 and 0.2. The highest correlation is between Item 9 *Read English books or magazines at home* and Item 21 *Summarize in my mind* and this is  $r = 0.19$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $N = 142$ . The next one is between Item 9 and Item 20 *Take notes when reading* with a correlation coefficient  $r = 0.14$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $N = 143$ . However, the last correlation which involves again Item 9 and Item 22 *Summarize in my notebook* is below 0.1 Therefore, there is no strong relationship at all between the last two variables (Robson, 2002, p. 423).

## Unfamiliar words

In general, tackling unfamiliar words can be an indicator of what kind of reader of a foreign language we are (Hellekjær, 2008, p. 12; Hellekjær. 2009, pp. 207-8). For this reason I have included Items related to different kinds of word handling strategies (Items 24-29). However, the term “unfamiliar words” is referred to as “unknown words” in my Questionnaire. Then I will concentrate on results that show which strategies are often or clearly often (scale 4) used by the respondents.

In Item 25 *Guessing unknown words from the context* the results indicate that 51 respondents (35.7%) practised it quite often and 63 (44.1%) did it often. However, as Grabe (2009, p.28-29; cited in Hellekjær, 2009, p.208) argued, “context does not provide very accurate information and further information is needed”. Grabe confirmed that overusing the context was typically of a weak reader and a strong reader. However, a good reader guesses the meaning of words by using the contexts (Hudson, 2007, p. 110). Thus, my conclusion is that a large number of respondents either classify as good and weak readers (80%). On the other hand, Item 24 *guessing unknown words from their knowledge of the subject* indicated 43 respondents (30%) using it clearly often and 50 respondents (35%) did so often. According to

Urquhart and Weir (1998, p. 63), background knowledge is used by L2 readers to compensate for linguistic deficiency. All in all, it seems to me that pupils liked to find solutions to unknown words by using immediate help from the context and their knowledge. To examine this relationship between these two reading strategies, I have run a correlation.

**Table 14: Correlation between Item 24 Tackle unknown words by using my knowledge of the subject and Item 25 Tackle unknown words by guessing from the context.**

		Item 24 Tackle unknown words by using my knowledge of the subject	Item 25 Tackle unknown words by guessing from the context
Item 24 Tackle unknown words by using my knowledge of the subject	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.563**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	143.000	143
Item 25 Tackle unknown words by guessing from the context	Pearson Correlation	.563**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	143	143.000

\*\*, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

From table 14 it can be concluded that there is a fairly strong correlation coefficient  $r=0.56$ ,  $p<.01$ ,  $N=143$ . In other words, there is a fairly strong connection between these variables.

With regard to items concerned with reading aims such as dictionaries, half of the respondents used a bilingual dictionary quite often, 40 (28%), and often, 18 (12%). In contrast, monolingual dictionaries were rarely or quite rarely used when reading on their own. The results for option 1, rarely, are 42 respondents (30%) while for option 2, quite rarely, are 36 respondents (25%). The trend seemed to be that pupils had only bilingual dictionaries at home.

The last two Items are questions interesting in the sense that a large number of pupils in English in Vg1 skipped unknown words, but did not give up reading. To be more accurate, 24 respondents (17%) rarely paid attention to unknown words but 47 respondents (33%) quite rarely paid attention. However, the vast majority did not give up reading. There are 124 respondents (87%) who answered rarely or quite rarely. Can this be a sign of high motivation

in reading caused by grades? Not really, confirmed after the correlation coefficient between Item 3 *Grades in English in the 1<sup>st</sup> term* and Item 29 *Giving up reading because there are too many unknown words* is below 0.3. I agree with Grabe (2009, p. 135) “that every person will have a unique combination of motives for reading”.

### 5.4.3 After reading

Although post-reading strategies have been defined as tasks (Hudson, 2007, p. 110); I prefer to think more generally what the reader can do before he starts doing tasks. Therefore, this set of Items (Items 30-34) invites the reader to reflect over his own reading and may inspire him to start working with small issues like vocabulary or eventually writing a short summary for the sake of checking if the text has been understood.

I will start with the reading strategy which is most demanding; Item 34 *Make a summary of the text in my own words*. The findings here were quite low and it is relatively alarming that pupils do not practise this strategy when it is so much needed in reading to learn in order to have a general overview of what is read, especially at college or university. By doing this, pupils avoid rereading whole books when preparing exams. What really is summarizing a text? How much can be summarized? Do pupils learn different ways of summarizing? Obviously not if we look at the results: 70 respondents (49%) practised this strategy rarely and 44 respondents (31%) did so almost rarely. This evidence showed that almost 80% of the respondents did not use the strategy.

Having seen that there is a lack of good practice of summaries, I continue the analysis of the other after-reading strategies. Right after reading a text Item 30 *I think about what I have read* shows that more than half of the respondents practised this strategy to a high degree. To be precise, 42 respondents (30%) answered often while 57 respondents (40%) do it almost often. In Item 31 *I reflect on if I have understood the text well enough*; I observe that again half of the respondents fall in the highest categories of the set of responses. While 28 respondents (20%) use it often, 59 respondents (41%) do so almost often. The practice of after-reading strategies increases with Item 32 *If it is interesting I think about the text* where almost a quarter of the respondents answer often or almost often. The first group consists of 62 respondents (44%) and the second group, 48 respondents (34%). Last but not least, Item 33 *I work with vocabulary*, the respondents are relatively spread between categories 4, 3 and 2

while the extreme categories are represented with lower percentages. In other words, 7 respondents (5%) work with vocabulary often while 16 respondents (11%) do so rarely.

## 5.5 Classroom reading

This section comprises reading strategies practised with the teacher in the classroom (Items 35-50). I attempt to present the analysis in a logical order, from before-reading strategies to ways of reading and reading aims, followed by collaborative learning strategies and finally the use of grammar in reading strategies. I believe that adding Items 47, 48 and 49 will cast some light on whether they have collaborative learning strategies in reading. The next citation proves the importance of adopting collaborative learning amongst pupils.

It is found that collaboration encourages learners to learn about learning, to increase their awareness about language and about self and hence about learning, to develop metacommunicative as well as communicative skills; to confront, and come to terms with, the conflicts between individual needs and group needs, both in social, procedural terms as well as linguistic, content terms; to realise that content and method are inextricably linked, and to recognise the decision-making tasks themselves as genuine communicative activities. (Nunan, 1992, p.3).

Having presented an overview of this section I will move on to analyse data in each subsection and find out which strategies are practised most in the classroom.

### 5.5.1 Before reading

This section includes Items 35 to 40. When pupils were asked about Item 35 *whether the teacher tells them the purpose of reading the text before reading it*; the following results were found:



**Table 15: Frequencies of Item 35 The teacher tells pupils the purpose of reading the text before reading it.**

<b>Rarely</b>	27 (19%)
<b>2</b>	28 (20%)
<b>3</b>	42 (30%)
<b>4</b>	29 (21%)
<b>Often</b>	17 (12%)
<b>Total</b>	143 (100%)
<b>Missing</b>	0

Surprisingly in table 15, 27 respondents (19%) did not think that the teacher told them the purpose but there was a slight increase in option 2 with 28 respondents (20%). There was almost a double increase in number of pupils, 42 (30%), that considered the practice of it at option 3 (sometimes). Then the number of pupils decreased again as the level of the use of this strategy increased. In other words, 17 respondents (12%) answered quite often 4 and only 17 respondents (12%) thought that they did so often. I believe that these results confirm that some teachers need to focus more on this strategy when giving reading instruction. It may be the case that the teacher told the purpose but pupils did not listen attentively.

Items 36 and 37 can be analysed together since they are connected with each other in the sense that they would occur in a logical order if they are used. If the reader thinks about the topic, he will also create expectations about the text he is to read.

**Table 16: : Frequencies of Item 36 Talking about the topic before reading and Item 37 Thinking about what we expect to know from the text before reading.**

	<b>Item 36 Talking about the topic before reading</b>	<b>Item 37 Thinking about what we expect to know from the text before reading</b>
<b>Rarely</b>	10 (7%)	23 (17%)
<b>2</b>	24 (16%)	44 (32%)
<b>3</b>	40 (28%)	44 (32%)
<b>4</b>	37 (26%)	21 (15%)
<b>Often</b>	31 (22%)	8 (6%)
<b>Total</b>	142 (100%)	140 (98%)
<b>Missing</b>	1	3

As evident from table 16, *talking about the topic before reading* is more widely practised than *thinking about what they expect to know from the text before reading*.

With regard to Item 38 and 39, I found that these strategies are very little used. *Making questions about the text and reading questions about text before reading starts* in the classroom were rarely or quite rarely practised. In the first one, the two lowest options together (rarely and quite rarely) were answered by almost the same number of respondents: Item 38: 111 respondents (78%) and Item 39: 110 respondents (77%).

The last item in this section, Item 40 *After we have read some pages the teacher stops us and asks us to guess*, indicated as well that the use of this strategy is very little practised. There are 58 respondents (41%) that rarely use it, 31 respondents (22%) quite rarely do so and practice of this strategy decreases as frequency increases resulting in 12 respondents (9%) who use it often.

### **5.5.2 Ways of reading**

This section comprises the following items: Item 41 *Reading in different ways*, Item 42 *Skimming*, Item 43 *Scanning* and Item 44 *Rereading*. With reference to Item 44, this strategy is mainly used as a kind of supported reading strategy and therefore the use of it, is more under monitoring comprehension in reading. In order to integrate it as a routine, it is important to teach it in explicit learning (Grabe, 2009, pp. 60, 219, 223). The general impression from the results is that pupils did not think they worked so much on various ways of reading such as skimming and rereading but they did practise scanning in the classroom. The results were as follows:

**Table 17: : Frequencies of Item 41 Reading in different ways, Item 42 Skimming, Item 43 Scanning and Item 44 Rereading.**

	<b>Item 41 Reading in different ways</b>	<b>Item 42 Skimming</b>	<b>Item 43 Scanning</b>	<b>Item 44 rereading</b>
<b>Rarely</b>	47 (33%)	19 (13%)	5 (4%)	9 (6%)
<b>2</b>	37 (26%)	42 (30%)	6 (4%)	43 (30%)
<b>3</b>	33 (23%)	45 (32%)	30 (21%)	51 (36%)
<b>4</b>	19 (14%)	24 (17%)	47 (33%)	27 (19%)
<b>Often</b>	6 (4%)	13 (9%)	55 (39%)	13 (9%)
<b>Total</b>	142 (99%)	143 (100%)	143 (100%)	143 (100%)
<b>Missing</b>	1			

As can be seen from table 17, Item 41 *The teacher asks me about different ways of reading*; 47 respondents (33%) believed they practised it rarely, 37 respondents (26%) used it quite rarely, 33 respondents (23%) did so sometimes, 19 respondents (14%) performed it quite often and finally 6 respondents (4%) practised it often. The results confirmed that the strategy was rarely practised.

As mentioned above, scanning was more widely used than skimming. If I focus on the highest option of the 5-set scale I have used, option quite often (4) and often (5) showed clearly these differences. While 24 respondents (17%) skimmed the text quite often and 13 respondents (9%) did so often, there were 47 respondents (33%) that practised it quite often scan the text and even 55 respondents (39%) do so often.

Regarding rereading Item 44, there was an increase in the use of this strategy in the degrees quite rarely (2) sometimes (3) with the results of 43 respondents (30%) in the first degree and 51 respondents (36%) respectively. This gives evidence that this reading strategy was fairly well practised in the classroom.

### 5.5.3 Reading aids

Regarding the use of reading aids in the classroom, there seemed to be a slightly higher preference for asking the teacher than using dictionaries. To show the differences I will focus on the highest options on the scale: quite often and often. While 40 respondents (28%) quite

often preferred to ask the teacher about unknown words, only 26 (18%) respondents did so often. On the other hand, 32 respondents (23%) quite often preferred to use the dictionary and 15 respondents (11%) did so often.

#### **5.5.4 Collaboration when reading: Items 47-48**

When pupils were asked about Item 47 *Ask my classmates about unknown words* and Item 48 *I comment on what I do with neighbour classmates*, data indicated that the teacher allowed pupils to collaborate and interchange knowledge when reading in the classroom. These strategies focus on collaborative teaching and learning and should be integrated in reading instruction when modelling strategies in groups after the teacher has given examples as reciprocal reading models suggest (Brown and Palinscar, 1998; as cited in Roe, 2008, p. 76, my translation) or as collaborative strategic reading (CSR) proposes (Klingner and Vaughn, 1996, 2000, 2004; Klingner, Vaughn & Shumm, 1998; as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 343). It is interesting to comment that both strategies were similarly practised by the same number of respondents in option 3 (sometimes), option 4 (quite often) and option often. There are 30 respondents (21%) in Item 47 and 32 (23%) in Item 48 that did it sometimes. Then the number of respondents increased to 50, 53 (38%) in Item 47 and 49 (35%) in Item 8; ending up in a decrease to 27 (19%) in Item 47 and 26 (19%) that used this strategy often.

#### **5.5.5 Working with grammar as a reading strategy**

Last but not least, there is the use of grammar as reading strategy in order to understand text by decoding morphological and syntactical information. To what extent do pupils in English at Vg1 level practise this strategy? The results showed that there was still a lot of focus on working with grammar when reading goes on, but not so often as I expected. To sum up, 7 respondents (5%) were of the opinion that they rarely did so. Then the number of respondents increased in the next option where 26 respondents (19%) did so quite rarely. For the next two options, there were 44 respondents (31%) respectively that thought they did so sometimes and quite often. Finally, there were only 20 respondents (14%) respondents who answered that they used it often. I will comment more about the use of this strategy in the discussion chapter.

## 5.6 Comments on the questionnaire: weaknesses

This Questionnaire is intended to be as pilot survey since it is the first time research is done in reading strategies in English Vg1, and it has been a real challenge to find out how Items could be formulated for the young respondents that I focus on. Thus, I believe that it would have been a dream to find the perfect Questionnaire. I probably would have needed more time to create a better Questionnaire, if not the perfect one. Consequently, while I have analysed the results I have come across certain weaknesses that eventually can be taken into consideration in further research in reading strategies.

I also see that analysis would have benefited from better measures of reading proficiency than grades, amount of reading or reading habits. Including a test of how to read an expository text in relation to different reading strategies would have given more accuracy in how pupils use their reading strategies. However, that would have been taken more time for my master's thesis than I had and it would have been a different master's thesis.

Furthermore, I should have written in the questionnaire that I deal with basic reading comprehension strategies (Paris et al., cited in Hudson, 2007, pp. 107-108; cf. Block & Pressley, 2002a; Duke & Pearson, 2002, 235; Guthrie, Wigfield, & Perencevich, 2004b; Pressley, 2002b; Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002, as cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 218) to avoid thinking about different types of text. Nevertheless, I can assure that was not the case, since I was present in the classroom when I carried out the survey and no pupils formulated any Item related to type of text. They felt that they were dealing with basic reading comprehension strategies, which was the intention.

# **6 Discussion**

## **6.1 Overview of the chapter**

This chapter's main aim is to summarize the different parts of my thesis up to now and discuss the findings in relation to the theory I have presented in section 2 about reading strategies and LK06 syllabus. Finally, I will discuss the validity of the findings.

## **6.2 My research statements**

My research statement is what reading strategies English Vg1 pupils use and it comprises the following sub-questions:

- 1) What kind of reading habits do Vg 1 pupils of English have at home and at school?
- 2) Which reading strategies do Vg1 pupils of English use on their own before reading, while reading and after reading a text?
- 3) Which reading strategies do Vg1 pupils of English use in the classroom with the teacher?
- 4) How often do Vg1 pupils of English use these reading strategies?

These are the four main areas in the questionnaire I prepared which comprised fifty items.

## **6.3 The findings**

The respondents are 143 pupils of English at Vg1 level attending general studies or vocational studies in seven high schools in Oslo and the surroundings: 76% general studies pupils and 25% vocational studies pupils. There are 60% female respondents and 44% male respondents from 16 years old to 18 years. Regarding first language, 80% had Norwegian as their first language while the rest have English or other languages.

### 6.3.1 Reading habits

With regard to the first issue, reading habits I found that most of my respondents do not read in the library. I found that most of my respondents did not read in the library, but at home or in the classroom. I do now consider this information interesting and useful. As a matter of fact, in Norway the Minister of Culture, Anniken Huitfeldt has started several projects this year 2010 which is called the *Reading Year*. Among the different measures her ministry proposed for the period of 2010-2014, is to reinforce libraries as places that contribute to research, education and lifelong learning. The main goal is to encourage people to read more by focusing more on the use of libraries (<http://www.AMB-utvikling.no>).

The next item to comment in the findings regarding habits is the fact that there is a positive and significant correlation  $r=.46$ ,  $p<.01$ ,  $N=142$  between Item 7 *How often pupils read English magazines and newspapers at school* and Item 9 *How often pupils read books and magazines at home*. The more they read at school, the more they read at home. That means that acquiring routines and practising them most probably increase pupil interest and motivation for continuity.

It is also evident from my findings that more than half part of the pupils 67% read something everyday on the internet. This tells us how important this media has become among young people, which will eventually help to establish good reading habits.

### 6.3.2 Reading strategies used at home

This section emphasizes the use of comprehension reading strategies that pupils practise in the reading process on their own. I use the term at home to stress that they do it without the presence of the teacher.

#### Before reading

In this part of the questionnaire, it is necessary to clarify again that my items focus on basic reading comprehension strategies (Paris et al., cited in Hudson, 2007, pp. 107-108; cf. Block & Pressley, 2002a; Duke & Pearson, 2002, 235; Guthrie, Wigfield, & Perencevich, 2004b; Pressley, 2002b; Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002, cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 218), therefore I do not take into account any type of text. It can be questioned whether the lack of naming basic reading comprehension strategies in the questionnaire is a weakness in the survey. This will

be commented again later on in the validity of the findings in this chapter. Nevertheless, respondents were asked whether they noticed what kind of text/genre they read in Item 13, as part of these basic reading comprehension strategies. As many as 58% paid attention to this issue often or quite often. It is assumed that pupils use reading strategies differently according to text type and purposes of reading (Grabe: 2009; p. 249-250; Hudson: 2007: p. 179; Roe: 2008; 47). After this brief clarification, I will move on to summarize the results of the findings.

The main finding here is the almost non existent use of the strategy *thinking about the topic before reading* (Item 12). Only 5.7% do it often and 13.5% quite often, which from my point of view means that few practised this strategy. In addition, it is relevant to refer to the fact that neither high grades nor low grades-pupils use this strategy much or at all.

## **While reading**

In this group of strategies, it seems to that the majority of the pupils read the text in detail (Item 16). To be more accurate, over half of the respondents, 62%, do this quite often or often. This may be because teachers mostly practice careful reading in the classroom. If this is the case, teachers have to be aware that pupils will not learn to use reading strategies properly. As Urquhart & Weir (1998, p. 103) claimed, by careful reading reader tries to understand most of the information in the text; which means that the process is not selective. They argue that “the reader chooses a submissive role and accepts the writer’s organization, organization, including what the writer appears to consider the important parts.”

With reference to strategies possible related to homework such as *taking notes* (Item 20), *summarizing in my mind* (Item 21), *summarizing in my notebook* (Item 22) and comparing the summary with the text (Item 23), the results indicate that it is the first strategy of this group that respondents practised most, as the percentage goes up to 60%.

The next group of strategies worth mentioning is that related to unfamiliar words (Items 24-29). Most of the respondents, 80%, guess the meaning of unfamiliar words (Item 25) from the context quite often and often and slightly above 60% use their previous knowledge to guess or deduce meaning (see chap. 5, point 5.4.2) This can, in fact, be an indicator of weak readers and good readers according to researchers (Grabe, 2009, pp. 28-29;



as cited in Hellekjær, 2009, p. 208; Hudson, 2007, p. 110). This was examined by correlating both items which showed a positive correlation.

Regarding reading aids, as mentioned before, I found that the respondents use mainly bilingual dictionaries (Item 26) in contrast to monolingual (Item 27). Therefore, teachers should introduce the use of monolingual dictionaries or other types of dictionaries in the pupils' everyday as the English LK06 syllabus indicates. By doing so, pupils will enrich their vocabulary and become better readers and will read faster. Nevertheless, it has to be pointed out that the majority of our respondents, 77%, do not give up reading because of unfamiliar words. This is very positive because it can be interpreted as high motivation in reading.

### **After reading**

To the items about what readers can do after reading I will mention briefly that I observed a striking contrast between two reading strategies Item 34 *Make a summary of the text in my own words* and Item 30 *I think about what I have read*. While the first strategy is very little practised, with a clear 80% of respondents who do it quite rarely or rarely, the second strategy is very much used, with more than half of the respondents doing so often or quite often. This indicates the need to improve the practice of written summaries in the classroom as a basic reading strategy very much in their future life at university or college (see chap. 5, point 5.4.3).

### **6.3.3 Reading strategies in the classroom with the teacher**

This section shows evidence of a lack of focus in practising reading strategies in the classroom, and can be the starting point of teachers being more aware of the strategies they should pay more attention to. The strategies involved in this part of the questionnaire are Items 35-50. As can be seen from the findings they are classified in a logical order comprising: before reading, ways of reading, collaborative learning strategies and last but not least the use of grammar in reading strategies.

Half of the respondents 55% claim that they rarely or quite rarely are told the purpose of reading the text before they start reading (Item 35). That brings me back to consider that unless they are told the purpose of reading a text in the classroom, many pupils may lose their interest in reading because they do not know why they have to concentrate on their reading.

They do not know why they have to concentrate on their reading and probably will ask the teacher why they have to read (Guthrie, 2008, p. 19). Furthermore, by failing to inform, teachers do not develop the reading process in extracting information required for the intended purpose in other kinds of reading that are not careful reading (Urquhart & Weir, 1998, p. 101). I believe that this can easily be rectified if they clearly state from the beginning what is the purpose of reading a text.

The next issue worth pointing out is that although teachers are relatively good at *talking about the topic before reading* (Item 36), they do not follow the next strategy (Item 37) which involves *creating expectations from the text before reading it*. Consequently, pupils will work mostly with vocabulary and concepts related to the topic, that is to say “word level cues” and less on “meaning-based cues” which characterizes good readers (Alderson, 2000, p. 347) already before pupils start reading. This means that pupils do not activate their background knowledge as they should do. English is a subject that they have had since first grade in primary schools. It is to be expected that they have a large amount of knowledge acquired from reading. The results show clearly that teachers focus mainly on *talking about the topic* (Item 36) and not on *thinking about what pupils expect to know from the text before reading it* (Item 37). It may be the case that teachers do not know how to differentiate the use of these two strategies.

In the same way the next strategies such as *making items about the text* (Item 38) and *reading items about the text before reading starts* (Item 39) are practised rarely or quite rarely. To be precise, the percentages are 78% in Item 38 and 76.9% in Item 39. Once again it would seem that teachers need to focus more on the use of these strategies before reading in order to help pupils to activate previous knowledge so as to make reading more interesting and motivating. Regarding Item 40 *after we have read some pages the teacher stops us and asks us to guess*; again this strategy is rarely or quite rarely used by 63% of the respondents.

The next group of strategies that follows in this summary is the pupils’ ways of reading in the classroom (Items 41-43). The results are a clear indicator of little variation in the teachers’ use of strategies. More than half of the respondents 59% answered that they rarely or quite rarely do so. To the items *skimming* (Item 42), *scanning* (Item 43) and *rereading* (Item 44), it is evident that skimming is much more practised than scanning while rereading is done rarely and quite rarely by 35% of the respondents. Nevertheless, there are

36% that reread sometimes. In general, the results show that it is necessary to improve the teaching and use of such strategies as scanning and rereading in the classroom.

As concerns the use of dictionaries, the results show that pupils prefer to ask their teacher about unfamiliar words instead of using dictionaries. Almost half part of the respondents 46% do so quite often and often. I believe that teachers have to stop doing the pupils' job. Instead, they should help pupils to be more independent and follow the LK06. In real life, there is no teacher around to solve this problem.

Although collaboration in reading can be a good working method I do not consider Items 47-48 as typical reading strategies. Actually Item 47 *I ask my classmates about unknown words* can be also be considered a reading aid in the same way as asking the teacher. However, it is important to point out that Item 48, *I comment on what I do with my neighbour classmates, focuses* on collaborative teaching and learning. This can be integrated in modelling reading strategies in groups after the teacher has given example as reciprocal reading models suggest (Brown and Palinscar, 1998; cited in Roe, 2008, p. 76) or the collaborative strategic reading (CSR) proposes (Klingner and Vaughn, 1996, 2000, 2004; Klingner, Vaughn, & Shumm, 1998; cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 342). The last model, as Grabe describes has been used among pupils that have reading difficulties. This reading model encourages pupil to play the role of teachers themselves after they have learnt how to use reading strategies. Since my thesis only deals with reading strategies used in English Vg1, I do not consider it appropriate to say more on how to model reading strategies in the classroom.

With regard to the last item (Item 50) *we work with grammar aspects in the text*; it is evident that there is no overuse of this strategy since 31.2% that do use it sometimes and quite often, while only 14% answered that they did so often. From a previous Master's thesis in teaching English grammar among secondary school teachers (Austad, 2009, p. 91), the following citation is taken as an example: "teachers of English in Telemark believe that teaching a certain amount of grammar is necessary in order to teach pupils to write and speak English correctly but that grammar should be taught implicitly and in the context (Austad, 2009, p. 89)." In my questionnaire I do not ask how they work with grammatical items in the classroom but only if the grammar aspect is worked on. It is quite positive to observe that it is done, which confirms the expectations of the English LK06 syllabus.

## 6.4 The findings in relation to the theory and the LK06 syllabus

In this section my intention is to discuss first the findings in relation to the theory of reading in the L2, and more specifically, to reading strategies needed for reading to learn. The next goal is to continue the discussion of the results pertinent to LK06. To sum up, I will include a brief summary of the chapter after discussing the validity of the findings that can lead to the conclusion chapter.

### 6.4.1 Findings and the impact of reading Strategies in Reading to Learn in English Vg1

As mentioned, the main aim of this study has been to find more about reading strategies used by English Vg1 pupils in order to give a clearer picture of what they do on their own and what with the teacher in the classroom. In my questionnaire (see Appendix 1), I choose reading strategies mainly used in basic reading comprehension strategies (Paris et al., cited in Hudson, 2007, pp. 107-108; cf. Block & Pressley, 2002a; Duke & Pearson, 2002, 235; Guthrie, Wigfield, & Perencevich, 2004b; Pressley, 2002b; Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002, cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 218) but many of them appear in reading to learn according to Roe's chart (Roe, 2008, p. 88). This kind of reading is one of the reading goals at school (Roe: 2008; 82) and since English Vg1 pupils have only this year as compulsory in the subject of English, it is very important to prepare them for future academic and professional life. My theory chapter (chap.2, section 2.4.3) provides a short description of reading to learn strategies following Roe's chart.

Before I continue, I would like to highlight that *reading to learn* is not the same as *careful reading*. According to Urquhart and Weir (1998, p. 103), this type of reading has been associated with reading to learn. Its main features are a macro-reading that means the comprehension of the whole text, not selective but accepting the writer's main ideas and text-structure. This is not the case of reading to learn. As mentioned in my theory chapter (chap. 2, section 2.4.1), reading to learn requires some effort to integrate information into organizational "framework or schemata". Surprisingly, reading to learn comprises not only content and cultural knowledge, linguistic knowledge but text-structure knowledge and strategies (Carrell, 1983b; 1988a; as cited in Urquhart & Weir, 1998, pp. 69-72; Berhardt, 1991b; as cited in Urquhart, 1998, p. 72).

For this reason, reading to learn is very demanding because the reader must remember the main ideas or secondary ideas when needed for integrating in his academic or professional life (Carver, 1992a; Chall, 1983 [stage 3]; Enright et al., 2000); cited in Grabe, 2009; p.9). The reader will combine his or her use of different reading strategies which for Roe (2008, p. 82, my translation) can be synonymous of learning strategies as well as content. This new information will be integrated into the readers' schemata or storage space in the long term memory and will be recalled by the reader whenever is encountered similar information (Roe, 2008, pp. 32-33; my own translation). By doing so, the reader will give a logical and consistent meaning to the text he is reading.

### **Reading Comprehension strategies related to reading to learn in Roe's chart**

The main aim in this section is to find out how the basic reading comprehension strategies can be categorized in reading strategies in connection with reading to learn presented in Roe's chart (see chap. 2, section 2.4.3). I would like to clarify that reading strategies such as *visualizing the text* (1.4), *monitoring* (1.5), *relating ideas* (1.6), *drawing conclusions/ inferring* (1.7), *reading aloud* (1.9) are not represented in my questionnaire. Regarding *focusing on text-structure* (1.12) I have to mention that neither this is represented when reading in the classroom.

### **Forming items: Item 38**

In this category I found that Item 38 *We make items about the text before reading the text* is worth commenting although this reading strategy is very little used. 111 (78%) of the respondents practised it rarely or quite rarely respectively in the classroom. As Roe (2008, p. 94) states using it will increase pupils' understanding and recalling the text.

### **Summarizing: Items 21-22**

This reading strategy involves Item 21 *I summarize what I have read in my mind* and Item 22 *I summarize what I have read in my notebook* when reading on their own. In table 10 (see chapter 5) the results show clearly that Item 21 was more widely practised than Item 22. Since I do not mention these strategies in reading in the classroom I cannot make further comments about how they are used with the teacher. However, I can point out when I ran correlations between Item 3 *English grade at term 1* and these reading strategies, the correlation

coefficients in both cases were very low, indicating a weak relationship between these variables.

### **Preparing and anticipating meaning: Items 12, 36, 40**

Three items are associated in this group: Item 12 *I spend some time thinking about the topic*, when reading on their own, Item 36 *We start talking about what we know about the topic before reading* and Item 40 *After having read some pages the teacher stops us and asks us to guess what will happen before continuing to read*. As mentioned in chapter 5 (see section 5.4), nearly a quarter of the respondents, 45 (32%) think about it rarely or quite rarely while surprisingly 8 (6%) do so often. With regard to Items 36-37, table 16 (see chap. 5), the results show that the former is more used than the latter. It is important to mention that these strategies have to be introduced in a creative way and without forgetting to tell the pupils the purpose of reading the text and using extra aids such as predictograms (Roe, 2008, pp. 90-91).

### **Clarifying: Items 17, 44**

This reading strategy is clearly connected with rereading either on one's own or in the classroom and can be supplemented with good items asked by the teacher after having read the text (Roe, 2008, p.96). Unfortunately, I have not included items after reading but the following items: Item 17, *How often do you read the text a second time on their own?* and Item 44, *Do you read the text several times in the classroom?* While Item 17 is rarely and quite rarely practised by 56 (40%) of the respondents, Item 44 is fairly well practised in the classroom.

### **Selective reading and finding relevant information: Items 15, 18, 19, 22, 42, and 43**

This group of reading strategies is referred by Roe (2007; cited in Roe, 2008, p. 101) as organising strategies and can be taken as example of overlapping of use of different strategies. In general, it is clear that skimming, scanning, underlining, writing key-words and summaries are classic examples of selective reading. In my results, when pupils read on their own skimming is less practised, since they focus more on reading the text in detail. In addition, *underlining words* (Item 18) and *writing key words* (Item 19) are even less used. Surprisingly, both are practised by 108 (76%) rarely or quite rarely. On the other hand, when pupils read in

the classroom, *skimming* (Item 42) is considerably used and even more *scanning* (Item 43) (see table 7 and 15 in ch.5). I leave out Item 22 since it is already commented above under strategy summarizing.

### **Focusing on language/ words: Items 26, 27, 33, 45, 47 and 50**

All the reading strategies under this point are connected with reading aids with the exception of Item 50 which deals with the use of grammar. In short, my results show that pupils need more practise with dictionaries and especially monolingual dictionaries (see *unfamiliar words* in point 5.4.2 and *reading aids* in point 5.5.3.). Moreover, most of the pupils rely on solving the meaning of unfamiliar words in the reading context and in previous knowledge about the topic and asking their teacher. In relation to working with grammar as a mean of decoding morphological and syntactical information in a text, the results confirm that it is used to a great extent (see last part of the previous section 6.3.3).

### **Focusing on text structure: Item 13**

My questionnaire investigates the use of this strategy when pupils read on their own. I am concerned with text-structure awareness as Grabe (2009, p. 218) presents it his list of reading comprehension strategies and not with Roe's assumption of how to work with text markers in an expository text (Roe, 2008, pp., 106-107) because I do not deal with any particular type of text in my questionnaire. Nevertheless I repeat that 58% of the respondents paid attention to this issue often or quite often (see chap. 5, point 5.4).

## **6.4.2 The findings and the LK06 syllabus**

The LK06 syllabus is explicit about the use of reading strategies, as mentioned in the theory chapter about the syllabus (see chap. 3). Nevertheless, I find it relevant to connect different parts of the syllabus to some of my findings.

To start with, the LK06 refers to the importance of developing vocabulary and skills in the English language within the objectives of the subject. Reading is presented as one of the main skills and can be achieved better if pupils are aware of strategies. According to Bialystok (2001, 2002; see also Baker, 2002, 2008 cited in Grabe, 2009, p. 223, see chap. 2, section 2.4.2) metacognitive awareness is fundamental because being able to think

consciously about what we understand in the reading process gives us the opportunity to select the right strategies when needed. In this respect metacognitive awareness can be used “as resources for understanding and using strategies rather than proposing distinct types of metacognitive (As opposed to cognitive) strategies.” Grabe interprets this by saying that, “...there are no metacognitive strategies. Rather, there are levels of awareness guiding consciously direct strategies used to support readers’ goals” (Grabe, 2009, pp. 223-4). I believe that the English LK06 syllabus support this view as well by not referring to metacognitive strategies either. Should this be its point of view or not, my questionnaire does not deal with metacognitive strategies but general comprehension strategies. In order to connect the LK06 syllabus to my findings in the use of reading strategies by English Vg1 pupils, I need to refer to the main subject areas of this syllabus.

The main subject areas are *language learning, communication and culture, society and literature* as presented in chapter 3. I will only comment those parts related to reading and I will leave out the rest of the basic skills. In the part of *language learning* the syllabus specifies pupils’ requirements such as “being able to assess one’s language use define one’s needs and select strategies”. Moreover, in the part of *communication* reading is considered as part of oral production and interaction. This means that pupils need “to master language knowledge and skills in using language knowledge such as vocabulary, idiomatic structures, pronunciation, intonation, spelling, grammar and syntax of sentences and texts”. Lastly, the third part of the subject areas shows that the contents to be selected in the subject give teachers and pupils a completely free choice in relation to the LK06 syllabus. It is evident how this syllabus leaves open the possibility of classroom decision-making (Breen, 1987a) and intends to reinforce pupils’ growth, maturity and creativity basic goals in a humanistic curriculum (McNeil, 2009, p. 5) with reading literature since it will not only give pupils linguistic skills but also understanding of how different people in different cultures live.

Having presented the general requirements in the main subject areas, I believe that my outcomes can point out how the requirements of the main competences can be measured through different reading strategies. Therefore, I will continue to analyse my findings in relation to the competence aims that pupils should achieve after Vg1 for programmes for general studies or Vg2 after vocational education programmes.

To start with in *language learning*, my findings show that working with grammar (Item 50) as a reading strategy is fairly used but not overused (see chap. 5, section 5.5.5). In



this way pupils will be able to describe forms and structures of English as the syllabus requires. Whether they do it inductively or deductively (Austad, 2009), this is not the point in my thesis. When it turns to the use of reading aids in the classroom (Item 45), regrettably the results indicate that almost 50% of the respondents prefer to ask the teacher instead of using dictionaries. Since I do not ask what kind of dictionaries pupils use in the classroom, I cannot comment whether they use of monolingual or bilingual dictionaries. However, I can only state that pupils are not very much used to working with monolingual dictionaries out from Item 26 and Item 27 in while reading strategies on their own (see chap. 5, section 5.4.2). Therefore the issue regarding this point in the syllabus has to be considered more seriously in the classroom.

Indeed, mastering a wide vocabulary is very much achieved by the use of *guessing unknown words from the context* (Item 25) with a relative high percentage, 80%, to be more accurate, who do so quite often and often. This could be sign of being either a weak or good reader (Hudson, 2007, p. 110; Grabe, 2009, p. 29, cited in Hellekjær. 2009, p. 208). Nevertheless, the difference between a weak reader and a good reader regarding unfamiliar words can be seen from this point of view:

Good readers tend to use meaning-based cues to evaluate whether they have understood what they read whereas poor readers tend to use or over-rely on word-level cues, and to focus on intrasentential rather than intersentential consistency. (Alderson, 2000, p. 347).

Another reading strategy that would give us further information about mastering a wide vocabulary is *guessing unknown words from their knowledge of the subject* (Item 24) which is also highly practised (see chap. 5, section 5.4.2 unfamiliar words). It seems to me that pupils have gathered a lot of knowledge in English in their previous years.

With regard to the point in the syllabus that refers to “extract essential information from written texts and discuss the author’s attitudes and point of view”, my findings summarize to which extent reading strategies such as skimming, scanning or reading in detail and reading the text a 2<sup>nd</sup> time are used on their own (see chap. 5, section 5.4.2; see table 9) and in the classroom (see chap. 5, section 5.5.2, table 17). On the one hand in reading on their own, *reading in detail* (Item 17) counts for more than 60% of the pupils’ reading who do so often or quite often. By overusing this strategy pupils would not develop other strategies such as skimming and scanning. As a matter of fact, the results show that *skimming* (Item 15) is

less used than reading in detail. In addition *reading the text a second time* (Item 17) is rarely or quite rarely practised by 40% of the respondents. On the other hand in reading in the classroom, *skimming* (Item 42) is more practised than *scanning* (Item 43) and *rereading* (Item 44) is fairly practised.

Another point of interest in the English LK06 syllabus is “the selection of reading strategies adapted to the purpose, situation and genre”, I repeat I do not focus on the other skills here; there are significant results that point out that more can be done with this goal. The general impression, as mentioned before, is that the pupils themselves do not think that they work so much on different ways of reading and parts of my questionnaire confirm it. Teachers can use or develop strategies such as *writing summaries* (Item 34) where the findings were very low or *thinking about what we expect to know from the text before reading* (Item 37) (see chap. 5, section 5.4.2, table 10; section 5.5.1, table 16).

Finally, when it comes to the syllabus point whether pupils read formal and informal texts in various genres and with different purposes, I can show results related to Items 13-35. Regarding *noticing the type of text* (Item 13), generally, almost 60% respondents do so often or quite often when they are reading on their own (see chap. 5, section 5.4). However, when it comes to the term purposes, I have only asked my respondents whether *teacher tells them the purpose of reading the text before they read it*. Surprisingly, almost 40% of the respondents answered that the teacher did so rarely or quite rarely.

To sum up, when the findings confirm that there are still some strategies that need to be practised more and new ones probably ought to be included, I believe that maybe something strange is going on in many English classrooms. There is a gap or lack of coherence between the English LK06 and its enactment in the classroom. Teachers and pupils need help to close this gap. How? A better system in reading as Roe proposes (Roe, 2008, pp. 16-17; my own translation). Maybe it is necessary to use other secondary means to improve the enactment of the syllabus such as textbooks, didactical traditions or teacher courses (Sivesind and Bachmann: 2008, p. 28-29) and practise more effective teaching in the classroom (Anmarkrud, 2009). More about this issue will be given in my conclusion, chapter 7.

## 6.5 Validity of the findings

In this section I will discuss basic concepts related to the validity of the findings: reliability, validity and generalizability.

### 6.5.1 Reliability

Reliability is an indispensable quality control issue. According to de Vaus (2002, p. 52), “a reliable measurement is one where we obtain the same result on repeated occasions”. The only way to prove reliability in my findings is to repeat the questionnaire some weeks or months later and see whether the respondents answer similarly. If this is the case, I can confirm that my findings are reliable. In addition to testing, De Vaus (2002, p. 52) pointed out two other basic aspects that have to be taken into account: wording and error. I believe that the wording of my variables is clear because I had the pre-testing of the survey among English Vg1 pupils where some suggestions about the wording were considered and I did the necessary changes. This means that the items were now correctly understood and the items were better measured. The last feature de Vaus (2002, p. 52) considered important under reliability, as mentioned in the method chapter (see chap. 4) is the coding. I have to admit that an error is made regarding grades in one group. In order to ensure anonymity for the respondents I have avoided including grade 7 for the school that has the international English studies. Although none pupil had achieved this grade in the first term, I believe that their other grades slightly differ from the public grades used in the Norwegian public school.

With regard to reliability Robson (2002, p. 102) argued that unreliability can be caused by participant error and participant bias. Possible factors that can affect the former are physical and psychological tiredness caused by exams or stressed situations; while the latter can suffer damage when the answer is made to please the person making the survey. Neither the first nor the second is a threat in my findings. I made appointments with the teachers in advance and the survey was carried on when it was good for the pupils. As a matter of fact it was before Easter vacation. In addition, the groups that thought not to be convenient to do the survey, they withdrew. Regarding participant bias, I believe that pupils could not think about being biased because the questionnaire was anonymous and their teacher wouldn't read the findings of her or his own class. Consequently, there was no need to please the teacher.

To sum up, it is a fact that this study needs to be followed up by a large scale survey with a representative sample of pupils including measures for reading proficiency and revised items for reading strategies.

### **6.5.2 Validity**

In order to establish trustworthiness in my research I need to consider its validity. Are my results accurate and do they represent the real state of affairs (Robson, 2002, p. 100)? Do my findings represent the real situation of reading strategies among English pupils of Vg1?

As mentioned in chapter 4, de Vaus (2002, p. 53) considered three types of validity: criterion validity, content validity and construct validity. The first one is not worth discussing because I can not compare my measures with existing ones at Vg1 level since I measure the concepts for the first time. The second type of validity is concerned with how well my concepts to be measured are understood in the survey. Content validity can be compared to internal validity and it has several factors that can threaten it (Cook and Campbell, 1979, pp. 51-5; cited in Robson, 2002, pp. 105-6). I do believe that there is mortality threat since there are one school and one class with less able readers that drop out. That means that the results I present are basically understood from the point of view of a more able reader. Finally, the construct validity, as mentioned before in chapter 4 (see section 4.5) evaluates how well the measures are in accordance with the theoretical expectations. In this respect, the questionnaire starts with items about the pupil's background (Items 1-5), and then it is followed by items about their English reading habits at home and at school (Items 6-11) and it ends up with items related to reading strategies on their own (Items 12-34) and in the classroom (Items 35-50). I am aware that in the questionnaire I did not indicate in the questionnaire that reading strategies pupils are asked about are basic comprehension strategies. As mentioned before (see ch.4), I decided not to include this clarification to avoid pupils thinking about different texts or making wording more complicated for them. The mini-pilot versions ensured me that I had defined correctly the concepts that are intended to measure. Therefore, I do not see that internal validity is threatened. Even more, since I was present in the classroom when the survey was carried out, I knew that I could clarify anything pupils were uncertain of.

### **6.5.3 Generalizability**

The last issue to consider is generalizability which refers to whether the results of the survey can be applicable to other English pupils at Vg1 in Norway. As presented before in the method chapter, I have chosen a convenience sample with an element of purposive sampling, since I chose the schools nearest to where I live. I also tried to have different types of schools representing all the different socio-economic levels and studies in Oslo and the surroundings. To my regret, the withdrawal of one school and one class that could have represented less able readers meant I failed to get a fully stratified sample. In addition, regarding the low number of respondents 143, I would argue that this survey has to be looked upon as a pilot survey that can give us information about the issue, but can not be used to generalize about the use of reading strategies of all English pupils at Vg1 in Norway.

All in all, my intention has been to throw more light on the use of reading strategies among English pupils at Vg 1. I realized now that it would have been a dream if I had found a perfect questionnaire for my master's thesis.

In the next chapter, the conclusion chapter, I will provide suggestions for further research and outline some implications for EFL- teaching-.

# 7 Conclusion

This chapter concludes my thesis and takes a look at possible further research and implications for EFL on the use of reading strategies in the classroom in English at Vg1 level.

## 7.1 Suggestions for further research

With regard to my survey, I have to admit that my sample is not only too small, 143 respondents, but also not representative because it is a convenience sample with a purposive element. In addition, the withdrawal of one school and one group, who from my knowledge were less able readers in English Vg1, I was left with a non-stratified sampling that for my research meant better respondents than the average. Therefore, the findings can not be generalized to the rest of the pupils in English Vg1 in Norway. However, I believe that I have found a useful picture of the current situation of the use of reading comprehensive strategies by English Vg1 pupils on their own and in the classroom that can be used as a starting point in further research.

My suggestion for further research is to develop a more accurate questionnaire with better measures for reading proficiency than grades and amount of reading. Moreover, the questionnaire can be improved by adding items in more specific reading comprehensive strategies in the classroom and they can be differently organized. A challenge would be to test what kind of reading strategies pupils use with narrative and expository texts. This could be done by using not only questionnaires but also a selection of different types of texts and genres. And last but not least, it is necessary to carry out the survey on a larger scale and perhaps include reading tests as part of the survey.

Furthermore, I support Faye-Schjøl's suggestion (2009, p. 140) that an equivalent study should be considered for Norwegian. Besides, it is also indicated by Anmarkrud (2009, p. 167) that teaching in the classroom may need some restructuring when it comes to use of reading strategies so that more focus and time may be given to teaching them.

## 7.2 Implications for EFL teaching in English Vg1

The outcome of my findings indicates clearly that it is necessary to work more on reading strategies in English Vg1, and to do so in a more systematic manner and with focus on integrating them in reading instruction. There is enough research done in the field of reading strategies that show how pupils can become better readers in L1 and L2 as I have presented in my theory chapter (see chap. 2). I believe that English Vg1 cannot be the only course that includes more reading strategies in reading instruction. It is necessary to start improving this issue at previous levels, especially at the lower secondary school level and continue with further assessment before entering upper secondary school.

Since English Vg1 is the final compulsory English course before entering university or college, one of its main aims should be to introduce or further develop better reading strategies in reading to learn (see chap. 4, and chap.2, section 2.4). The reason for this is that they will be part of pupils' life in their future life-long learning. I suppose that pupils ought to be tested in the use of reading strategies by their English teacher before they start English Vg1 in order to find out which reading strategies they have acquired and what they need to work on in the year to come.

On the one hand, the English LK06 syllabus gives teachers complete freedom how to enact the syllabus in the classroom (Hopmann and Haft, 1990a; cited by Sivesind and Bachmann, 2002, p. 31). As mentioned before in chapter 3 (see chap. 3, section 3.6), this is an advantage as well as a disadvantage because it requires the teachers to limit the contents of the syllabus, which is not an easy task. Moreover, the English LK06 is a good example of a process syllabus in the sense that it prioritises classroom decision- making (Breen, 1987b; see chap. 3, section 3.4). In other words, both teachers and pupils can negotiate and contribute in finding the best solutions how to adapt content and methodology in their learning situation in the classroom. The enactment of the syllabus has to be carried out in the classroom because it is the heart of education (Graves, 2008, p. 152, see chap. 3, section 3.6).

Indeed, the English LK06 syllabus concentrates on the skill *being able to read* and refers to it as a means to explore and *reflect upon reading strategies* with gradual use of more demanding texts. It also explains what is required of reading and reading strategies such as for example the use of monolingual dictionaries and the selection of appropriate reading strategies for the purpose, situation, and genre. Another point in this syllabus is that pupils

should read different types of texts in different genres with different purposes and increase their reading levels by using mathematical information in communication (see chap. 3, section 3.5.1). The English LK06 includes many such good general principles as a good reading curriculum needs (Grabe, 2009, p. 331-332, see chap. 3, point 3.5.2). However, it does not include one key component which is strategy instruction as a part of text comprehension instruction.

In other words, given the available knowledge about reading and strategy use, I think that teachers cannot rely any longer only on personal experiences, reading texts of the subjects they teach on and interchanging ideas with other colleagues (Jensen et al., 2008, p.9, cited in Anmarkrud, 2009, p. 235). It is time to find a better solution.

I believe that in order to improve this situation of the use of reading strategies in English Vg1 and in order to introduce more focus on reading strategies in reading to learn is probably to offer good reading courses to English teachers. Nevertheless, my personal experience tells me that attending courses lately has not been a real success among teachers. Personally, it decontextualizes teachers' learning process in acquiring new knowledge. By doing so, this would resemble the current situation of teaching reading strategies in English to pupils because reading strategies are not integrated in the reading instruction in the contents (Faye-Schjøll, 2009). There have to be other ways to help teachers to integrate reading strategies in their busy everyday. Instead, I would suggest doing it in their own school and in their own classes and together with their pupils supervised by experienced teachers who are knowledgeable in this area. It could be arranged as a kind of workshop called "the reading week" at the beginning of the first term. Later on, the teacher together with the class could get further support according to their needs.

To finish with, it would be good to remind teachers to set less focus on reading in detail (Urquhart & Weir, 1998, p. 13; also mentioned in Hellekjær, 2008, 2009) as my results show and more focus on telling the purpose of reading and variation in the use of basic comprehension strategies (see chap. 2) and what is most important, teaching pupils to monitor their reading process so that they are more aware of which strategies they understand and which ones they need to work on (Roe, 2008, p. 85; Alderson, 2000, p. 47).







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# Appendix 1

Questionnaire number \_\_\_\_\_

## Questionnaire about reading strategies in English Vg1

### Questions about your background

1. ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Age.....

3. What was your grade in English at Christmas this year?

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐

4. What is your first language?

1 ☐ Norwegian ☐ English ☐ Other

5. What language do you speak at home?

1 ☐ Norwegian ☐ English ☐ Other

### Questions about your English reading habits

6. How many English novels have you read at school so far this year?

None 1 2 3 4 or more

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7. How often do you read English magazines or newspapers at school?

Never sometimes monthly weekly daily

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8. How many English books are there in your school library?

None 20-40 40-60 60-80 80 and more  
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐



9. Do you read English books or magazines at home?

Never	sometimes	monthly	weekly	daily
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

10. How many English books do you have at home?

None	20-40	40-60	60-80	80 and more
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

11. How often do you read English on the internet?

Never	sometimes	monthly	weekly	daily
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

### Questions about how you read on your own

Mark on the scale which alternative you think is the most suitable for you. (Give only one answer per question.)

#### Before reading

12. I spend some time thinking about the topic or theme in the text before I start reading.

Rarely									Often
	1	2	3	4	5				
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				

13. Before reading, I notice at once what kind of text / genre it is: article, letter, short-story, play, etc.

Rarely									Often
	1	2	3	4	5				
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				

14. I reflect on the text structure such as the number of paragraphs (avsnitt).

Rarely									Often
	1	2	3	4	5				
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				

## While reading

15. I start by reading quickly through the text. (skimming).

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

16. I read the text in detail and try to understand every word.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

17. How often do you read the text a second time?

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

18. How often do you underline words when reading?

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

19. How often do write key words when reading?

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

20. How often do you take notes when reading?

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

21. I summarize what I have read in my mind.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

22. I summarize what I have read in my notebook.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

23. I compare my summary with the text I read.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

**How I tackle unknown words or phrases:**

24. I guess the meaning of unknown words using my knowledge of the subject I am reading about.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

25. I guess the meaning of the word from the surrounding sentences and text.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

26. I use a bilingual dictionary (Norwegian – English)

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

27. I use a monolingual dictionary (English – English)

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

28. I continue reading without paying attention to unknown words.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

29. I give up reading because there are too many unknown words.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

### **After reading**

30. I think about what I have read.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

31. I reflect on if I have understood the text well enough.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

32. If it is interesting I think about the text.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

33. I work with vocabulary.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

34. I make a written summary of the text in my own words.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

### **Questions about how you read in the classroom with your teacher**

35. Our teacher tells us the purpose of reading the text before we start reading.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

36. We start talking about what we know about the topic before reading.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

37. We think about what we expect to know from the text before reading.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

38. We make questions about the text before reading the text.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

39. We read the questions in the book about the text we are going to read before reading it.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

40. After having read some pages the teacher stops us and asks us to guess what will happen before continuing to read.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

41. Does the teacher ask you to use different ways of reading?

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

42. Do you skim the text to have a general idea?

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

43. Do you scan the text to find answers to questions?

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

44. Do you read the text several times?

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

45. We use dictionaries in the classroom.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

46. I ask my teacher about unknown words.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

47. I ask my classmates about unknown words.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

48. I comment on what I do with my neighbour classmates.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

49. I read by myself and understand the text without outside help.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

50. We work with grammatical aspects in the text.

Rarely

Often

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

# Appendix 2

Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS  
NORWEGIAN SOCIAL SCIENCE DATA SERVICES



NSD - Datatjeneste AS  
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Glenn Ole Hellekjær  
Institutt for lærerutdanning og skoleutvikling  
Universitetet i Oslo  
Postboks 1099 Blindern  
0317 OSLO

Vår dato: 23.03.2010

Vår ref: 2009/2718H

Deres dato:

Deres ref:

## KVITTERING PÅ MELDING OM BEHANDLING AV PERSONOPPLYSNINGER

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 23.02.2010. Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

23864	<i>Bruk av fersktninger blant elever i Engelsk i V1</i>
Behandlingsansvarlig	<i>Universitetet i Oslo, ved institusjonens ansvarlige</i>
Daglig ansvarlig	<i>Glenn Ole Hellekjær</i>
Student	<i>Filomena Castillo Merchán</i>

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger er meldepliktig i henhold til personopplysningsloven § 31. Behandlingen tilfredstiller kravene i personopplysningsloven.

Personvernombudets vurdering forutsetter at prosjektet gjennomføres i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet, korrespondanse med ombudet, vedlagte prosjektvurdering - kommentarer samt personopplysningsloven/helseregisterloven med forskrifter. Behandlingen av personopplysninger kan settes i gang.

Det gjøres oppmerksom på at det skal gis ny melding dersom behandlingen endres i forhold til de opplysninger som ligger til grunn for personvernombudets vurdering. Endringsmeldinger gis via et eget skjema, [http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvern/forsk\\_stud/skjema.html](http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvern/forsk_stud/skjema.html). Det skal også gis melding etter tre år dersom prosjektet fortsatt pågår. Meldinger skal skje skriftlig til ombudet.

Personvernombudet har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet i en offentlig database, <http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvern/prosjektoversikt.jsp>.

Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 30.06.2010, rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Vennlig hilsen

Vigdis Nantvedt Kvalheim

Ingvald Bergan

Kontaktperson: Ingvald Bergan tlf: 55 58 32 32  
Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering  
Kopi: Filomena Castillo Merchán, Fuglelieveien 23 E, 0667 OSLO

Endringsskjemaet / Det nye skjemaet

OSLO: NSD - Datatjeneste AS, Postboks 1047 Blindern, 0317 OSLO. Tlf: +47 22 85 32 32. [nsd@nsd.uib.no](mailto:nsd@nsd.uib.no)  
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# Appendix 3

## Informasjonsbrev til elevene

Kjære elever,

Jeg heter Filomena Castillo Merchán og studerer for å bli lektor med mastergrad i engelsk didaktikk ved Universitetet i Oslo. Kan dere hjelpe meg?

Oppgaven min er om ”Bruk av lesestrategier blant elevene i Engelsk i Vg1”. Den undersøker hva elevene vet om bruk av lesestrategier. Veilederen min på prosjektet er Glenn Ole Hellekjær, associate professor Dr. Artium ved ILS (Institutt for lærerutdanning og skoleutdanning) [g.o.hellekjar@ils.uio.no](mailto:g.o.hellekjar@ils.uio.no) /mobilnr.: .

Alle opplysninger fra undersøkelsen blir anonymisert i publikasjon. Tidspunktet for prosjektslutt og sletting av personopplysninger er 30. Juni 2010.

Som forsker er jeg også underlagt taushetsplikt og all data som kan spores tilbake til skolen vil bli behandlet konfidensielt.

**Deltagelse i prosjektet er frivillig og alle elever kan trekke seg når som helst i prosessen dersom de ønsker dette.**

Prosjektet er meldt til NSD (Norsk Samfunnsvitenskaplige Datatjeneste).

På forhånd takk,

Med vennlig hilsen

Filomena Castillo Merchán

Tlf: Email: [filomenc@student.uv.uio.no](mailto:filomenc@student.uv.uio.no)

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# Appendix 4

## Informasjonsbrev til rektor og engelsklærer

Kjære rektor og engelsklærer,

Jeg heter Filomena Castillo Merchán og studerer til å bli lektor med mastergrad i engelsk didaktikk ved Universitetet i Oslo. Kan du hjelpe meg med min masteroppgave?

Oppgaven min er om ”Bruk av lesestrategier blant elevene i Engelsk i Vg1”. Den undersøker hva elevene vet om bruk av lesestrategier. Veilederen min på prosjektet er Glenn Ole Hellekjær, associate professor Dr. Artium ved ILS (Institutt for lærerutdanning og skoleutdanning) [g.o.hellekjar@ils.uio.no](mailto:g.o.hellekjar@ils.uio.no) /mobilnr..

Alle opplysninger fra undersøkelsen blir anonymisert i publikasjon. Tidspunktet for prosjektslutt og sletting av personopplysninger er 30. Juni 2010.

Som forsker er jeg også underlagt taushetsplikt og all data som kan spores tilbake til skolen vil bli behandlet konfidensielt.

**Deltagelse i prosjektet er frivillig og alle elever kan trekke seg når som helst i prosessen dersom de ønsker dette.**

Prosjektet er meldt til NSD (Norsk Samfunnsvitenskaplige Datatjeneste).

Jeg sender engelsklæreren informasjonsbrevet til de foresatte for at de kan samtykke. Det trenger jeg før jeg gjennomfører spørreundersøkelsen min. Datoen og klokkeslettet vil jeg gjerne avtale direkte med engelsklæreren.

På forhånd takk,

Med vennlig hilsen

Filomena Castillo Merchán

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